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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 2, 1904.

The Week.

It is of course unfortunate that the Swayne impeachment should have been decided by so nearly a party vote. As one close student of the case remarked, enough evidence was collected against the Judge "to blackball him in a club." But it was straining the facts to call him guilty of high crimes and misdemeanors, and invoke the extreme remedy of the Constitution against him. There were not a few able members in both houses who honestly thought the abuses justified impeachment, but, as a body, the House did something very like leaping before it looked. The testimony, as in all such cases, was voluminous, and only a handful of members had read it through. On the only charge sustained by all the members of the House committee, it appeared that some of the most distinguished members of the Federal bench would have been equally guilty. Partisanship has been disclaimed by every one in considering this case, and yet, at every stage, nearly all the Democrats have voted one way, and most of the Republicans the other.

San Domingo topsy-turvydom is forced upon our attention again by the attempt to assassinate President Morales. He, like all his predecessors of recent years, is on a perilous eminence. Having mounted to it by dishonest methods and violence, he knows that he may be thrust down at any moment by conspirators more bold and unscrupulous than himself. Hence his eagerness to be safeguarded by the United States. Morales, of course, is "the Dominican Government" of which the treaty gravely speaks. It is he who invites innocent Uncle Sam to come in and protect him from the foes of his own household. That on one side. On the other, the San Domingo Finance Company, with that guileless politician, Smith M. Weed, as its President, is quietly standing by, waiting for our Government to guarantee it profits of who knows how many per cent.? Meanwhile, at the State Department, the rest is silence. Mr. Hay, keen on literary mysteries as he is, has not yet run down the author of the lawless and now disavowed "protocol" of January 20. Who authorized it to be signed? Did Mr. Hay? If, not, have we another case of "Loomis, Acting"? These questions will have to be answered sooner or later. The Senate is in duty bound to call for the correspondence. And the affair would have a better look if the Administration frankly took the public into its confidence, instead of waiting to have the truth dragged out of it.

What impression the San Domingo proposals make upon clear-sighted foreigners, may be seen in the article of Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu in the *Économiste Français* of February 4. He says with much force that all the disclaimers about intending no permanent control of Dominican territory go for nothing in view of the obligations actually assumed. "Though the word protectorate is not written in the agreement, and though great care is taken at Washington not to utter it, there can be no doubt that the thing is present." M. Leroy-Beaulieu also singles out the real gravity of our light undertaking to pass upon the justice of foreign claims against San Domingo. As Sumner said that Grant's treaty of annexation was a plan to "buy a revolution," so President Roosevelt's proposal is to buy a whole line of lawsuits and causes of international friction. To make ourselves not only an administrator in bankruptcy, but the sole judge of the rights of the creditors, is certainly, as M. Leroy-Beaulieu remarks, to embark upon a policy which would be "dangerous" in the end, if not immediately.

Ex-Secretary Long's warning against stretching the Monroe Doctrine too far, by setting up as general dun and collector of bad debts in this hemisphere, shows how the thought of serious men is turning against the Roosevelt plan of assuming the power of the purse in San Domingo. The art of government is foresight; and it is clear to sober minds that the Dominican hornet's nest is not the only one into which we shall have to thrust our hands if we once begin the process. It is with peculiar force and authority that Mr. Long also raises his voice against the President's headlong naval plans. At peace with all the world, and with the need of new taxes staring the Treasury in the face, this is no time to crowd on new construction. The ex-Secretary is wholly within bounds in saying that we have not the men, and with difficulty can get Congress to vote them, to man the ships. But that is just the way the little see-saw naval game is played. New warships are wheedled out of Congress, under solemn guarantees of limited cost, "just for this year," etc., and then the Department comes down with tearful pathos demanding more sailors. The big navy could discount the horse-leech in the game of extracting money from a befooled Congress.

"Never since the beginning of our country's history," said the President on Washington's birthday, "has the navy been used in an unjust war." But it was used in the Mexican war, which in Gen. Grant's deliberate opinion was "one of the most unjust ever waged by a stronger against a weaker nation." Mr. Roosevelt, of course, may dissent from that historical judgment. It may also be that he now scorns the notions of that other historian, Theodore Roosevelt, who, in his *Life of Benton*, spoke of the Mexican war as "a wrong," and recorded without disapproval Benton's denunciations of it. The absurdity of Mr. Roosevelt's insistence upon a large navy as the sole hope of peace appears at once if we but consider that England, Germany, and France are all steadily increasing their fleets, that Russia intends to rebuild hers on a gigantic scale, and that Japan will enlarge her navy to the extent of her resources. Three of the most powerful nations will soon be practically on a par in naval strength—France, Germany, and the United States—with England considerably in the lead; and Russia will doubtless catch up, so far as ships are concerned, within a few years. What then? Will the world's peace be really more assured by the existence of six great war fleets than it would be if there were none? If all the big nations are armed alike, where is the advantage? What Mr. Roosevelt cannot get into his head is the fact that his big-navy speeches are doing as much as anything else to cause European nations to increase their fleets. There is a good deal of loose talk about an alliance between the Anglo-Saxons, but it does not prevent England from matching every new battleship or cruiser we build with one slightly larger or more heavily armed. As is evidenced by the latest speech of the French Minister, France also does not intend to let us get ahead if she can help it. Instead, therefore, of this great nation setting the splended example it once did as the one beyond all others devoted to the arts of peace, we have become a chief reason why other nations should spend more and more millions upon their fleets.

What the big-navy men cannot deny is that a single new invention or development in marine engineering may consign our enormously costly fleet to the scrap heap without a moment's warning. The great lesson of the war in the East, according to the Navy Department, is the triumph of the battleship. But, to unbiassed outsiders, it is the victory of the floating mine, which has inflicted all the losses the Japanese have suffered. Togo's fleet did not sink a single ship by gun fire in the battle of August 15, and could not reach a single ship in the harbor of

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Port Arthur, on account of the coast defences and floating mines, until the *Sevastopol* was driven into the outer harbor by the shells of the army. Take the turbine engine, for example. If the new Cunarder equipped with this machinery achieves twenty-six knots an hour, as is confidently expected, there must be a revolution in naval engineering. This vessel will be an auxiliary cruiser, and as such will be capable of running away from any battleship or cruiser afloat. Her existence will so "menace our commerce" that we shall at once be informed of our duty to produce naval vessels of similar speed. Thus far our naval engineers have only tentatively considered plans for turbine engines in one scout vessel. They may suddenly find themselves compelled to adopt them for all ships within the next five years.

We quoted last week the extraordinary remarks about international arbitration attributed to Mr. Roosevelt by the *Gaelic American*. The current issue of that paper reaffirms his opposition in 1897, and says:

> "The committee that waited on Mr. Roosevelt, of which the editor of the *Gaelic American* was one, are all alive, and their recollection of the occurrence is very clear. Mr. Roosevelt used the words attributed to him, and he has no reason to be ashamed of them. Further than that, he was in the habit of using similar language, and that fact was largely instrumental in making him Governor of New York. It even held for him for President of the United States the votes of many Irish citizens, who refused to believe either that he had changed his mind or fallen under the dominion of John Hay."

The incident might be dismissed as simply another example of the President's facility in persuading those on opposite sides of public questions that he is enthusiastically with them both. It throws, however, a strong light not only upon his political methods, but upon the existing situation. As between arbitration and a fighting navy, both of which he professes to favor, who can doubt which is nearest his heart? His public approval of arbitration is perfunctory. It is the sort of insincere tribute that a first-class fighting man feels compelled to pay to civilization—meaning about as much as "The ladies, God bless 'em!" But the real and dominant attitude of Mr. Roosevelt is betrayed in his private remarks to the implacable Irishmen. We would not so wrong him as to hint that he was simply bidding for their votes when he said to them that he was "against arbitration between nations." He said so because in his soul he was against it; and he has not yet, like the more facile Lodge, "changed his soul."

That the President should have run foul of the Constitution in his attempt to make Senator Quarles a Federal judge is a mere incident—humiliating to Mr. Roosevelt, but not vital. The main interest of the appointment lies in its bearing on the factional politics of Wisconsin. Because the Senate, during Mr. Quarles's term, increased the salaries of district judges, he is not eligible to appointment until after his Senatorial term expires and (by the same token) that of La Follette begins. It is probably better on all accounts that the almost unavoidable clash between the two Wisconsin Senators should take place over a matter of importance rather than degenerate into a petty squabble over some second-class postmaster, though every one must regret seeing the national judiciary involved in a fight of this kind. The President has had two judicial vacancies to fill in Wisconsin. To one he appointed Senator Spooner's former law partner, and for the other he has selected the Senator whose reëlection was made one of the chief campaign issues of the defeated Spooner faction. These appointments agree very well with the reports that, in spite of the fact that he and the President are both fighters of Trusts and curbers of railroads, La Follette will not find the atmosphere at the White House altogether congenial when he arrives at Washington. That La Follette would rather have Quarles on the bench than in active politics is hard to believe. While he has been a creditable Senator in every way, he never was a party leader of whom La Follette had any reason to be afraid.

Among the most important steps in the President's education which the Senate has taken in hand, is the prohibition in the Indian Appropriation bill. Hereafter, the diversion of Indian funds to sectarian schools, which Mr. Roosevelt ordered, will be defensible by no such legal quirk as he resorted to. The general policy was as flatly declared by Congress before; but the President found a way, at the urging of the Catholics, to get around it. Now, however, all Indian moneys are put beyond his reach. Neither principal nor interest of the Indian trust funds can he touch. Mr. Roosevelt declared, in his apologetic letter on the subject, that he believed his course in the matter both wise and just; and added that he should persist in it, unless Congress should otherwise order or the courts find him in violation of the law. Well, he has now got his Congressional order, with its implied condemnation.

An instructive sequel of the Senatorial election in Washington, when Foster of Tacoma was succeeded by Piles of Seattle, is explained by the Washington correspondent of the Portland *Oregonian*. A few days ago the Postmaster-General announced that no postmaster would be appointed at Tacoma during the present session of Congress, but that after March 4 Henry L. Votaw, recommended by Congressman Cushman, would be named for the place. The term of the acting postmaster expired a year ago last December, and it then devolved upon Senator Foster to name his successor; but, with this year's struggle for reelection to the Senate in mind, Foster took no action. Privately, he promised the place to a member of the Washington Legislature on the tacit understanding that the latter would stick by the Senator in his fight for reëlection. The recommendation for appointment was delayed, however, until the member should "make good." Representative Cushman took this little tale of shrewd Senatorial manipulation to the President, who promptly gave the order to hold the matter over until Foster had left the Senate.

The Senate has several times shown signs of wishing to rebuke the President for unnecessarily loading up the retired list of the army by retiring officers with advanced rank, bestowed for the purpose of getting them out of active service. Now, however, Congress has finally given him a free hand by agreeing to the bill to place Senator Hawley of Connecticut on the retired list with the rank of brigadier-general. A more inexcusable bestowal of a rich Government favor has not been seen since Representative Boutelle of Maine was made a retired captain in the navy when stricken with incurable disease. The retired lists were obviously not intended to be the refuge of aged or decrepit politicians. Mr. Roosevelt can, hereafter, point to the Hawley case whenever any one criticises his padding of the retired roll of either service. To make matters worse, the House, in agreeing to retire Senator Hawley, added an amendment similarly retiring Gen. Peter J. Osterhaus, one of the most gallant of our German-American civil-war generals. Neither of these men has been connected with the army since 1866; Gen. Osterhaus having lived in Mannheim, Germany, for the last thirty years. Senatorial courtesy will have a new meaning hereafter for Senator Hawley.

"Responsible government," Speaker Reed once wrote cynically, "is the thing which all Americans profess to believe in, but which no American would tolerate for an instant in practice." Certainly, its last vestiges seem on the point of disappearing at Washington. Even the Speaker's control of business was broken on Monday. Twice his own party, or enough of it in combination with Democrats to make a majority of the House and "vote down the organization," was deaf to his personal pleadings. Speaker Cannon had set the example, however. He is reported to have given

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his pledge to President Roosevelt that he would get the two battleships through the House; anyhow, he quietly buttonholed Democrats and got them to rally in sufficient numbers to overcome the strong Republican defection on that question. But it was a dangerous precedent, and was turned unpleasantly against the Speaker himself. If he is ready to promote extravagance in naval appropriations, plenty are ready to get up their little cabals in favor of other forms of waste. But this is to make responsible government ridiculous.

Inquiry by the House into the Osage oil land leases is a timely recognition of responsibility. There is, apparently, a pressing need for bringing to the attention of the Indian Territory Illuminating Oil Company the principle of the "square deal." In approving a proposed compromise lease, to run from April, 1906, to April, 1916, and to cover 680,000 acres out of the 1,500,000 included in the reservation, Secretary Hitchcock recently denounced the old lease as "an unheard of monopoly." This instrument authorized the oil company to prospect over the whole Osage territory and to produce as much oil as it pleased, on condition that it should pay a royalty of 10 per cent. into the tribal treasury. Now the proposed new lease is identical in terms with the old, except that it is confined to somewhat more than a third of the reservation. But this 681,000 acres takes in every foot of really profitable oil land belonging to the tribe, so that we have in effect a renewal of the agreement objected to by the Osages. Their complaint is based on two grounds: They protest that a 10 per cent. royalty is not enough in view of the fact that the oil company exacts from the sub-lessees a royalty of 16 2-3 per cent. in addition to a bonus varying from $1 to $10 an acre. The imminence of allotment in severalty to the members of the tribe is another reason justly urged against a long-term lease which would impair the value of an Indian's individual holding.

All the testimony in the Colorado election contest is now in, and, with that rare impartiality and detachment of view which Rocky Mountain politics develop, the leaders of both sides have looked over the demonstration and found it absolutely conclusive. To the readers of but one Colorado newspaper, all is clear and simple; but the man so foolish as to attempt reading two, finds nothing but confusion. To begin with Denver, the Peabody handwriting experts identified 9,048 ballots as the work of a few hands. This number was within a thousand of Adams's plurality. But the Democratic witnesses identified an even hundred of these as their own bona-fide votes. To the Republican mind, this leaves the other 8,948 conclusively proved to be fraudulent, and fully justifies the rejection of the ballot-boxes. To the Democrat, it discredits the whole theory based on the expert testimony. The same thing would, however, apply to the testimony of Mr. Adams's experts, who have examined 4,405 ballots, among which 1,501 for Peabody were found to have been written by a few persons. According to the computation of his adherents, the net result of the long conflict of expert testimony is to leave an Adams plurality of 909. That is, he would win by that figure if the votes were thrown out bodily from all precincts, in and out of Denver, where frauds have been demonstrated by the experts of either side. Perhaps the most startling bit of evidence was presented week before last by the Democrats. They had called for the ballot-box from a certain precinct in Huerfano County, but there was much delay and difficulty in having it produced. It was finally brought before the Committee and opened, only to disclose the fact that it was entirely empty. From that precinct Peabody had been credited with 177 votes to 24 for Adams. This roughly summarizes the arithmetical side of the evidence. "A plague o' both your houses" must be the committee's feeling as it makes ready to report.

The proposed "grandfather clause" amendment to the Maryland Constitution, disfranchising negroes, has encountered some peculiar legal difficulties. It has not the approval of Gov. Warfield, and its promoters have contended that the assent of the Executive is not necessary at any stage in the process of making it a law. The Constitution provides that every amendment must be passed "as a bill," and the opponents of the suffrage change hold that this means that the Governor has the veto power. To test this contention, a friendly suit was brought last December. Now another point of a similar nature has been made. It is that, even supposing the amendment to be ratified by the people next fall, it does not legally take effect without the Governor's proclamation, and that the Governor could in no way be compelled to issue such a proclamation. This view is backed up by an old opinion by Judge Bryan, the father of the present Attorney-General. The friends of the amendment, according to this construction, might impeach the Governor, but no judicial process could force him to declare the amendment either adopted or rejected. The question is, of course, more or less academic, for it is very unlikely that any governor would exercise so doubtful a power, especially against a measure of his own party. But should the amendment be forced through by crooked methods, it is fortunate if the Governor has some discretion as to accepting the returns as they come from the judges of election.

The election in Philadelphia on February 21 was interesting chiefly from the participation of a new organization, the City party, which nominated candidates for Councilmen, and, endorsing two Democrats, put up three nominees of its own for the "minority" magistrates, of whom five were to be chosen. In this contest the machine was put on its mettle. Being entitled by law to only ten of the fifteen magistrates to be chosen, its object was to put the other five in the hands of Democrats instead of City candidates. Enough Republicans therefore threw their votes to the Democrats to accomplish this object. The *Ledger*, which estimates the number of illegal votes at 40,000 and declares that the "repeating zone" was extended to wards hitherto unmolested, finds some consolation in noting "results which are inspiriting at least in so far as they show what might be done under an honest electoral system." So far as the machine depended on argument at all, it used the familiar "defaming the city" cry. "As a matter of plain fact," said the *Inquirer* on the day before election, "Philadelphia is the most moral city of all the great municipalities, not only in the United States, but in the world." "Corrupt and contented" was Mr. Steffens's caption for his study of Philadelphia politics, and the city seems bent on living up to the description.

Mr. Wyndham, whose engineering of the Land Purchase act was a model of Parliamentary tact, has made it his care to maintain good relations with the Irish Nationalist party. To this end Sir Antony Macdonnell, Under-Secretary of the Lord Lieutenant, has kept in touch with the Nationalists, and in many ways has tried to persuade them that the Government is sincerely promoting their cause. Meantime, Mr. Wyndham and others, while condemning the Home Rule heresy, have talked wisely of "devolution of power." Some of this power, according to Sir Antony Macdonnell's plan, was to be devolved upon semi-elective councils. To this scheme, for which the mover had cited the precedent of similar Indian councils, Mr. Wyndham gave a too hasty assent. In regretting and taking back his approval, he excuses himself merely by his "colossal ignorance of Indian affairs," the unhappy occurrence of a holiday involving a hasty action, and the undue, if wholly loyal, zeal of the Under-Secretary. Clearly, he comes off but lamely in the matter, and the Government, which, with its paper majority reduced to about eighty, needs the Nationalist vote more than ever—*it* is always present and counted—enters upon a session in which rebuffs may confidently be expected.

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TWO PER CENT. A MONTH.

In his communication to the Senate accompanying the proposed treaty with San Domingo, President Roosevelt gave some account of the foreign debt of that republic, of the face value of which, he says, the Government probably did not receive over 50 or 75 per cent. Then he adds:

"Other portions of the debt were created by loans for which the Government received only one-half of the amount it was nominally to repay, and these obligations bore interest at the rate of one to two per cent. a month on their face, some of them compounded monthly. The improvidence of the Government in its financial management was due to its weakness, to its impaired credit, and to its pecuniary needs occasioned by frequent insurrections and revolutionary changes, and by its inability to collect its revenues."

This illuminating paragraph is found in the midst of a heated discourse on the Monroe Doctrine, the logic of which runs thus: Since Spanish-American and Spanish-African countries have frequent revolutions and need money to put them down—or to carry them on, as the case may be—and since European speculators take their bonds at 50 per cent. discount, charging 2 per cent. a month interest, therefore the Monroe Doctrine requires *us* to do something. Insurrections and revolutions have been going on in those countries for the better part of a century, and money has been borrowed to put them down, or to carry them on, wherever lenders could be found to take the hazards of the enterprise. In all cases heretofore the lenders have known that they took the risk of losing their money. The loan was a bet on one side or the other. Very frequently there were wagers on both sides, as in an ordinary poolroom, and the gamblers seldom thought of looking beyond the stakes for the return of their money. A revolution much like this was going on in San Domingo while President Grant was conducting the negotiations with Baez, leading up to the treaty which the Senate rejected. The poolroom in that case was here in New York.

Mr. Roosevelt proposes to change the system so that the betting fraternity shall have more security for their investments. It is proposed to advertise to the two-per-cent.-a-month men in Europe and America that if the country whose paper they shave fails to pay, they have only to invoke the shade of Monroe to bring Uncle Sam upon the scene, who will forthwith send a fleet and take charge of the defaulter's custom-houses and collect tolls for the claimants. It is needless to say that, with such assurances, there will never be any lack of poolrooms for taking chances at 2 per cent. a month on Spanish-American and Spanish-African insurrections. Indeed, there have been plenty of them before. English capital has been freely invested in such enterprises in Central America in times past, and would have been more largely placed there had not the English Government given notice that it would not guarantee any loans of its subjects to foreign governments, since to do so would enable private persons to involve the country in war. Naturally, these private persons want some other government to do for them what their own Government refuses to do. Hence, the invocation of Monroe and the appeal to Uncle Sam at the present time. And here it is pertinent to ask what harm has come to us, or to Monroeism, in the past while these poolrooms have been open? What is the reason for this sudden change of policy on our part towards the two-per-cent.-a-month bankers in foreign lands?

Some hints are thrown out, as an answer to this question, in the President's communication to the Senate. He says that a loan was made, or a claim was held, against San Domingo by the house of Westendorp of Amsterdam; that default was made by San Domingo, and that the Westendorps assigned the claim to the San Domingo Improvement Company, an American corporation. Very little information is given as to the genesis of this company, its composition, its paid capital, its charter powers, its aims, or its doings, except that it has acquired the Westendorp claim. It is probable that the Westendorps parted with it because their own Government would not take it up. It may be a valid claim, but it does not follow that the United States Government should have anything to do with it. Still, it would be interesting at this crisis of Monroeism to have a complete history of the San Domingo Improvement Company; to find out what persons own it; what they paid for it; what money they have spent for the benefit of San Domingo as an equivalent for the $4,500,000 which we are now collecting from that poverty-stricken people for their benefit; and how they came to take the bonds of the Westendorps—so that the country may know whether we are engaged in an honest and clean transaction, or whether this is one of the many fraudulent and dishonest schemes which financial adventurers of the two-per-cent.-a-month variety succeed in fastening upon countries distracted by revolution, by bribing the temporary dictator of the country to sanction their predatory game.

The San Domingo Improvement Company of New Jersey may be a noble-minded and perfectly clean-handed corporation, for which we are exacting only the money it has acually expended for the benefit of that unfortunate people; but it may be that we are only the cat's-paw of financial adventurers who are getting two or more dollars for every one that they have actually invested. What we want is light—to obtain which, time is required and is abundant. Moreover, since both the Executive and the Senate have begun by giving publicity to the treaty, the investigation should be public also.

THE SENATORIAL PRIMARY.

The usual number of State legislatures will doubtless adopt, before the winter is over, resolutions for electing United States Senators directly by the people. The national House of Representatives stands ready at any time to vote for the same reform, but, so long as the Senate itself opposes it, a Constitutional amendment is out of the question. Yet, while the agitation for a change in the organic law is practically hopeless, there has been in the last few years a remarkable movement for securing many of the same objects in an indirect way.

Hitherto, the system of nominating party candidates for Senator by a popular primary has been confined to Southern States, where the Democratic nomination was equivalent to election. Not until last year did the idea take root in the North, but it seems to be spreading now very rapidly. Wisconsin adopted by referendum last November a law under which the voter records his choice of party nominees not only for Governor and State officers, but for United States Senators as well. This was regarded as a rash step even by many advocates of the direct-nomination idea. Yet, without waiting to see the result of the experiment, a half-dozen other Northern States are thinking of adopting the same comprehensive plan. In Illinois, where Gov. Deneen made primary reform one of his campaign issues, the "administration" bill provides for the placing of names of Senatorial candidates on the primary ballot, with the proviso that "the vote upon such candidates for United States Senators shall be had for the sole purpose of ascertaining the sentiment of voters in the respective parties."

In South Dakota the primary bill, which has been the most prominent measure before this year's Legislature, likewise has been drawn to include Senatorial nominations, as has the bill before the Legislature of Washington. In Minnesota, where the direct primary system for local offices has been in existence for some years, it is now proposed to extend it to the choice of United States Senators, and this is to be urged before the Legislature. That is to say, in most of the localities where primary reform is an issue at all at present, the proposal is for the people not only to nominate all officers whom they are themselves to elect later on, but also for them to issue binding instructions as to an office which the Constitution intended should be taken out of their hands altogether.

This is very like the process by which the electoral college was stripped of its discretionary power. It has been the

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American way in the past, when a fundamental change of plan has been unobtainable, to devise a workable arrangement under existing laws. The obligation of the Presidential elector to vote for his party candidate, though not enforceable in any court, is so strong that even under heaviest pressure no man has disregarded it in more than eighty years. It is more than doubtful if a State Legislature would ever give up its power so completely. As Walter Bagehot somewhere points out, a body which is chosen to perform a variety of functions can never become the mere agent of its constituency, as may the body chosen for but a single purpose.

In the Southern States, the election by primary seems to move like clockwork. Two years ago Colorado and South Carolina elected Senators at about the same time. In the one case, the two houses were in a state of siege at the capitol, and it looked as if a Senator could be elected only at the cost of bloodshed and riot. In the other, the debate on some unimportant local bill was merely suspended for a minute while a unanimous ballot was cast, and the member who had been interrupted went on with his speech. In fact, Mr. Latimer's own biography in the Congressional Directory makes no acknowledgment at all to the Legislature to which, in theory, he owed his preferment. "Was elected to the United States Senate by 17,700 majority," the Directory says, "over J. G. Evans, to succeed John L. McLaurin." In Arkansas, the number of votes cast in the Democratic primary which chose Senator Clarke was practically twice as great as the total vote for Parker last fall.

There are manifestly greater difficulties in the application of such a system to a State where more than one party exists. A few Assemblymen, for instance, whose own constituents wanted Stokes for the Senatorial nominee though Noakes was chosen, might conceivably hold the balance of power in a close Legislature, and actually strengthen themselves politically by disregarding the verdict of the primary. This condition has no parallel either in the Southern States or in the workings of the electoral college. But such difficulties can be solved only by facing them. It is hard to see how, in any event, a popular vote for Senators, whether in the primary or the election itself, could produce worse results than the system of choice by the Legislature. This State, under such a law, might now be represented by Elihu Root and Joseph Choate, instead of by Platt and Depew.

THE RAINES-LAW HOTEL DOOMED.

The favorable report by the Senate's City Committee upon the City Club's bill to do away with the abominable Raines-law hotels is a convincing sign that the Republican leaders have decided to allow this measure to become law. In our opinion, no more important legislation will be enacted at Albany this season. The proper solution of the water question is, of course, essential and pressing, but the City Club's bill strikes at an evil which has done more to lower the moral tone of New York than any other. The existence of the "fake" hotel, besides demoralizing the public, has demoralized the guardians of the peace. They have seen unmentionable crimes a matter of daily occurrence in resorts which technically have the sanction of the law, but really bring the law into contempt and contumely as does no other business—not even the corner saloon with its defiant violation of the Sunday-closing law.

What the Raines-law hotels are, the Committee of Fifteen clearly brought out in its report on the social evil. Trained investigators found that these inns have been "the scene of most insidious and therefore most effective solicitation," with rooms so conveniently arranged as to make exposure unlikely. The existence of these rooms quickly drove many saloonkeepers into renting them to dissolute persons as the only possible way of making them pay. The city has had no genuine need of the hundreds of so-called hotels which have flourished under the law, but the saloon owner had to take an entire house if he wished to sell liquor legally on Sunday. As the Committee of Fifteen reported, the "most damning charge of all" brought against this mushroom hotel is that it "provides the greatest known facilities for seduction." Young girls are brought there, regaled on liquors of the influence of which they are ignorant, and then fall easy victims. The Committee found that this terrible allegation was true, and every New Yorker who knows anything at all about city conditions knows that the language it used was if anything too mild.

That such conditions could have been tolerated for any length of time in an American city seems beyond belief, but it is characteristic of our rural rulers that, until recently, they have refused to consider any suggestions for a change. Senator Raines has repeatedly declared that his law was not only above suspicion, but beyond improvement. No denunciations of it by bench or by bar, by the press, or by the clergy have hitherto availed. You might cite the number of proved seductions from year to year since 1896, when the law was passed, but it made no more impression than a demand for relief proceeding from the most public-spirited citizens and societies in this city. The Legislature knew what was best for New York, no matter how fearful the price the city might be paying. Just what has brought about the change we do not know. Whether the credit wholly belongs to the City Club or to Senator Raines or in part to Gov. Higgins, we cannot attempt to decide, but we do say that the prospect of relief is a genuine cause for congratulation. The abolition of the Raines-law hotel will be an event as well worthy of celebration as the opening of an underground railroad. That such reforms can be achieved by persistent fighting must encourage the most pessimistic. It is plain proof that an aroused public opinion of this city can still make itself potent at Albany. And that opinion, be it noted, has never been so well organized, so sensitive, or so readily directed, as at the present day.

It is but fair to Senator Raines to say that the present bill is based upon one he prepared last year, and that he has readily accepted the changes suggested by the Anti-Saloon League and the other conferees, Messrs. W. S. Bennet and Lawrence Veiller. These gentlemen are confident that fully 90 per cent. of the iniquitous hotels will disappear at once. In brief, the bill requires the Commissioner of Excise, before issuing a license, to find out from the Superintendent of Buildings the date on which the building was made into a hotel, the height of the structure, whether it is fireproof or not, and whether it complies with the law as to its rooms, their size, number, etc. If the reply shows that the hotel does not comply with the Raines law or the building laws, the Commissioner of Excise is forbidden to grant a liquor-tax certificate. Now the law requires that all hotels fitted up or constructed since 1896, and thirty-five feet in height, shall be fireproof. It is just this provision which is expected to do away with the "fake" hotels. They cannot be made over into fireproof structures, for it would not pay their proprietors to do this, even if they had the means. So far as the hotels in existence prior to 1896 are concerned, many of them are bona-fide, some having done a legitimate business for thirty or forty years. To require them to rebuild would cause unnecessary hardships from the point of view of those who would attack only the illegitimate resorts, however desirable reconstruction might be for reasons of public safety.

It must not be forgotten that this legislation leaves the ordinary saloons untouched, being aimed merely at those with ten-room attachments. It does not in any way solve the question of Sunday opening, licit or illicit. It may, and probably will, increase the illegal Sunday profits of the saloonkeeper, whose chief competitors have been the "fake" hotels. The question whether we are to have a law regulating the Sunday sale of liquor which can be enforced, or are to go on violating the present law, is yet to be settled. The abolition of the fraudulent hotel will clear this issue of one complication which has done much to befog it.

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A WAR AVERTED.

The great and happy significance of the North Sea arbitration is that it prevented a desolating war. Men may debate the balanced and somewhat inconclusive findings of the court, but no one can deny that reference of the dispute to the court was all that prevented England from going to war with Russia. "We might find ourselves at war before the week was over"—such was the startling language of Lord Lansdowne to Count Benckendorff on October 26, as contained in the correspondence now published. The English Foreign Minister also called the Russian Ambassador's attention to the "concentration of the British fleet at Gibraltar and elsewhere." The situation was critical. English public opinion was clamorous. The drift towards war was obvious; and with Russia and Great Britain plunged into hostilities, the danger that France and Germany might also become involved was acute. Hence it was an impending calamity, immense and almost unthinkable in its proportions, from which the resort to arbitration saved the world.

Note, too, that the points involved were precisely of the kind to go to war about, with each side maintaining that it was innocent and aggrieved. There was a sharp issue on a matter of fact. The Russians asserted that they were attacked by torpedo boats. To this the English indignantly replied that there were no war vessels of the kind lurking behind and among the British fishing fleet, and to assert that there were was grossly to insult England, as it implied that she had deliberately violated the obligations of a neutral. But consider how strong the Russian case would appear to Russians to be. Their admiral himself, with several leading officers, was on the bridge; they had glasses; the searchlights were turned upon the suspicious ships; and all agreed that torpedo boats were seen. If there had been war, the question would have been debated to the end of time without a conclusion. But now, without making a single woman a widow or any children orphans, we have the impartial decision of a body of competent officers, and it will command universal acceptance. Thus arbitration may challenge preeminence over war as a means of "settling things." There was also that most delicate point in an international controversy—a nation's pride and jealousy in behalf of its own officers. Lord Lansdowne demanded that, in addition to apologies and indemnity, which Russia was prompt in offering, Admiral Rozhestvensky be "punished." On that point war hung for some days. Punish our admiral? cried the Russians; first prove him culpable. We assert him guilty, hotly retorted the English. From that deadlock of opinion, with swords drawn, arbitration was the escape. It was a blessed escape, possible only because Premier Balfour was not, as Mr. Roosevelt privately assured his visiting Irishmen in 1897 that he was, "against arbitration between nations."

Some uncertainties and disappointments will linger after the decision of the Paris Commission; but so they would after a bloody war with a million killed. The main points are cleared up to the satisfaction of reasonable men. As to the torpedo boats, all the Commissioners but the Russian agree that none were present. With the Austrian, French, and American admirals uniting in this finding of fact, it must be considered as put at rest, so far as all the evidence now available goes. Yet Rozhestvensky's orders were held to be "not excessive in time of war," except for the actual opening of fire, which was "not justified"; and a general recognition of his "military valor" and "sentiments of humanity" was thrown in as a final placatory flourish. If the whole bears marks of delicate seamanship on the part of the arbitrating admirals, so as to steer clear of rocks on either side, the result is yet one to be received with thankfulness, since it comes from skilled and unbiassed men, and averts a terrible war. It is one renowned victory more for arbitration.

With general relief will it be learned that the first press rumors of the decision were unfounded in one particular. The Commission avoids going the length of asserting that an admiral's duty in war time is to fire first and find out later what he is firing at. This would have been an alarming doctrine. Neutral commerce would everywhere have felt itself exposed to appalling hazards. Readiness of a blundering admiral's home government to make reparation would have helped the situation but little. As Lord Lansdowne observed with great force to the Russian Ambassador, if a naval commander was to let go his guns on a mere theory that he was attacked, "who would be safe, and what was to prevent the Russian fleet, during its long journey to the Far East, from carrying death and destruction with it throughout its course?" From that peril, though some naval officers have said privately (Lord Charles Beresford is reported to be one of them) that it is an unavoidable incident of war as now conducted at sea, the Paris Commission does its best to free the world of commerce. It shrinks from establishing a precedent under which a rash commander might make himself with impunity a terror of the seas. There may be dispute whether the Commission should not have gone further and been more exact and explicit; but, at any rate, it did not admit that Rozhestvensky was justified in firing upon peaceful vessels without first making sure of their character. We want no *Flying Dutchmen* of that kind chartered.

The carefully framed compromises of the decision leave room for both England and Russia to grumble a little; but, in reality, each ought to be content. England's main contentions are upheld. Perhaps nobody will be "punished," as Lord Lansdowne insisted; but, under the agreement, Russia was to do whatever punishing seemed necessary in view of the Commission's assignment of guilt. That, however, is so vague that probably nothing will be done. Thus Russian *amour propre* will not be seriously impaired. But, over and above all such considerations, rises the great deliverance from war, with the vivid and salutary reminder that civilized nations have now a way of settling their quarrels not in the manner of wild beasts.

GEORGE S. BOUTWELL.

George Sewall Boutwell, who died on Monday last, was born on January 28, 1818, at Brookline, Mass. He was a descendant, through his father, of James Boutwell, who was admitted a freeman in Lynn in 1638; and through his mother, Rebecca Marshall, of John Marshall, who landed at Boston in 1634. His mother's father, Jacob Marshall, invented the cotton press, the first use of which, however, was in pressing hops. Both families were of pure English stock, and Mr. Boutwell himself was thoroughly representative of that remarkable civilization which characterized the development of the little republics of New England. When he was but two years old his father bought a farm at Lunenburg, incurring a debt of $1,000, which was paid only after twenty years of severe toil. The boy's schooling was limited. He learned to read while facing his mother as she held the Bible open in her lap, and always retained the power of reading an inverted page. He attended the district school, summer and winter, until he was ten years old, and the winter school until he was seventeen, when his school life ended. There were educational influences enough, however, at a time when the common people were shaking off the restraints of the Puritan régime, both political and religious, and the air resounded with controversy. Mr. Boutwell soon freed himself from religious trammels and had little to do thereafter with churches. When he was thirteen, he became clerk in a country store, and was thenceforth in active intercourse with men. He studied when others were sleeping, reading many good books, and fitting himself as well as he could to practise law. He taught school for a few months, but soon returned to shopkeeping—this time at Groton, which was his home from 1835 to the time of his death. This town, which is now best known because of the boys' school recently established there, was then a place of importance. Several eminent lawyers lived there, among them the father of Margaret Fuller. She was known to Mr. Boutwell as a Sunday-school teacher, in which capacity he recollected that she expressed her opinions "in a style which indicated that they were not open to debate."

The country store has always furnished an opening for talents, and Mr. Boutwell's probity and capacity in business, combined with the severe training which he gave

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himself by persistent study at night, made him respected and influential. Such a man, in such a community, necessarily enters political life. Mr. Boutwell was a Democrat because he believed in equality and the other principles of the Jeffersonian school, but he never defended slavery, and he opposed the annexation of Texas. He was a demagogue in so far as he represented the middling and lower class of people in their struggles to overthrow the old aristocracy of the State; but he was sincere in his support of Democratic principles. He held "Shay's rebellion" to have been justified and even beneficial to the State; but he differed with his party concerning liquor legislation. He was several times defeated at the polls because of his independent action, but represented his town in the General Court for several of the years between 1840 and 1850. His achievements as a legislator consisted in transferring the choice of the overseers of Harvard College to the Legislature—a mischievous but short-lived measure—and in enforcing the taxation of personal property. He also served on several commissions—a field in which his business abilities were successfully employed.

By the combination of the Free-Soil and Democratic parties, Mr. Sumner was elected Senator in 1850, and Mr. Boutwell Governor in 1851. All the offices were then held by Whigs, and Mr. Boutwell promptly replaced them with Democrats and Free Soilers. He had, even in his later years, little sympathy with the civil-service reformers. After his term of office was over, he became Secretary of the Board of Education, in which capacity he visited every town in the State, holding "teachers' institutes," and making, during his five years of service, more than 300 addresses. In this way he came to know the State thoroughly, and to be known to all men active in public affairs. Meanwhile, the Republican party had come into being, and Mr. Boutwell's anti-slavery feelings naturally carried him into its ranks. He saw the nature of the crisis in 1860, and urged that an armed force should be raised to secure the inauguration of Lincoln. He advocated emancipation from the first; and indeed his career in the House of Representatives, of which he was a member from 1863 to 1869, may be described as an advocacy of all the most radical measures of the Republican party. He took a leading part in the impeachment of President Johnson, and always maintained that the votes of the House and Senate really established the principle that the Executive might be impeached for acts which were not indictable offences. He was, of course, a supporter of the policy of reconstruction which Congress finally adopted. He was a more sedate person than Thaddeus Stevens, but not less determined and violent in his policy. He proposed in 1868 to abolish the existing governments and make the whole South a military district. The Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments were largely his work, the latter especially. He was responsible for the Tenure-of-Office Act, which was intended to keep Mr. Stanton in control of the army. The lesson that he drew from the impeachment proceedings was that it would be unwise to lengthen the term of office of the Executive. The impossibility of removing a President made it desirable, he thought, that there should be frequent elections.

In March, 1869, President Grant appointed Mr. Boutwell Secretary of the Treasury. He was known only as a radical politician, and the financial world was not pleased with the choice. Mr. Boutwell, however, proved to be in many respects an excellent officer. After he had held office four months the *Nation* observed that "intelligible, business-like purposes, frankly announced in advance and faithfully adhered to, a consistent recognition of the law as his only and imperative guide, and an equally consistent disregard of that kind of popular clamor which is almost always due only to the selfishness of influential individuals, and which is so often pleaded as an excuse for official vacillation and tergiversation," were characteristics that went far to justify the President in making the appointment. Mr. Boutwell undoubtedly bettered the administration of the Treasury, which under President Johnson had become very corrupt. There were no more "leaks" for stockjobbers to profit by. The Secretary kept his own counsel, and made his announcements so that the whole country knew what was to be done, although he was induced to act as a *deus ex machina* in the "Black Friday" panic in 1869, ordering a sale of gold in violation of the published schedule for the purpose of affecting the market price. He applied the surplus revenue to the redemption of bonds for the sinking fund—a requirement before neglected—and in that way increased the credit of the Government. He also greatly improved the form of Treasury statements, the methods of keeping accounts, and the personnel of the service.

Unfortunately, Mr. Boutwell was narrow in his financial views, and, in fact, ignorant of financial history. His convictions were so strong as to make him arrogant and intolerant. He was incapable of appreciating the invaluable services of Mr. D. A. Wells, and probably persuaded the President that he could be dispensed with. He was a bigoted protectionist, and had no disposition to apply the principles of civil-service reform in his own Department. The collection of the customs was attended with some scandalous abuses, due, to a great extent, to the bad character of the officers of the revenue service. Towards the end of his term he attempted, at first without success, to refund a part of the public debt, and in a later attempt paid a syndicate of bankers a considerably larger commission than was authorized by law. His motive was laudable, and the transaction was probably advantageous to the Government; but it was of doubtful legality, and was pronounced improper by Congress. Finally, at a time when confidence was greatly shaken, he allowed a subordinate (a New York banker having induced President Grant to give the order) to reissue a large number of the "greenbacks" which had been paid and were supposed to be cancelled. This proceeding greatly alarmed all conservative business men, especially as Mr. Boutwell appeared to claim the right to reissue the whole $44,000,000 that had been paid off. He appeared to assume that it was the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to supply the currency needed "to move the crops"—a view which commended itself to the desperate speculators who were threatened by the collapse which soon took place. The committees appointed by Congress to investigate the matter declared this view unwarranted by law, and severely condemned Mr. Boutwell's claim to exercise a power which might, by inflating the currency, impair the obligation of contracts to the extent of one-tenth. He soon after resigned his office, having been elected Senator, and thus escaped the evil days for the Treasury which came in President Grant's second Administration.

Mr. Boutwell's term as Senator ended in 1877, and he was not reëlected, partly on account of the hostility of Gen. B. F. Butler, who was aggrieved because Mr. Boutwell opposed the confirmation of the notorious Simmons as Collector at Boston. In 1877 he was appointed a commissioner to revise the United States statutes. He served as counsel for the Government in 1880 in the settlement of the claims of Frenchmen arising out of the civil war, and took part in numerous cases involving questions of international law. After many years of withdrawal from public affairs, Mr. Boutwell was impelled by the oppressive and sanguinary course of our Government in the Philippine Islands to raise his voice in protest. A partisan all his life, he could not bear the spectacle of the Republican party trampling on the Declaration of Independence and the Constitutional amendments securing human freedom which were bought with the great price of the civil war. His speech on "Imperialism as a Public Policy" contrasted forcibly the principles which led to the emancipation of the negroes with those which were involved in the subjugation of the Filipinos. It illustrated, too, the intensity of conviction and the rugged honesty for which Mr. Boutwell was distinguished, and which gave him for many years a position of almost unparalleled influence in the councils of the Republican party. He may be said, in spite of his advanced age, to have been the head and front of the anti-Imperial sentiment and propaganda in Boston, and his utterances were to the end remarkable for vigor and fire. This was his last service to his country; and it was, perhaps, more trying and more honorable to him than any other that he ever rendered.

EL TRIBUNAL DE AGUAS.—I.

The vagaries of Spanish justice have long been a byword. The judicial temperament, under those heating skies, is commonly reported to suffer from the want of objective aloofness, from a general tendency to read new and unexpected connotations into such familiar terms as legality and equity. During more than one visit to Spain, with somewhat more than ordinary opportunities for obtaining tolerably accurate general information, I have repeatedly been struck with the bitterness of Spanish litigants (whether successful or not) over their experiences in this connection, and with their invariable eagerness to avoid for the future by any possibility the slow ordeal of waiting for a judgment. At first, the habitual caution of generalizing with reserve leads one to listen to these complaints as one might turn an ear to pungent, amusing gossip; it is the reiteration of them that compels conviction.

By way of a specimen case, the following anecdote, vouched for in all its details by the one who suffered (and by his *abogado*),

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was admitted to be typical by many others to whom it was repeated. A large dealer in exports rented a neighbor's field some two or three years ago for a single season, the crop being wanted to satisfy an unusually heavy order from a foreign house. Now it happened that the owner of the field was in debt and declined to pay. Just at the time when the crop was ready for gathering and immediate shipment from the little Mediterranean port, the grower was astounded to hear that the whole of this movable property had been attached to the soil by some legal process or other until the creditor should be satisfied. After the first wild wrangle, in which the shipper vainly protested against seizure of *his* effects, the lawyer on the other side calmly proposed the following terms "as compromise," viz., payment of *half the original debt and all the costs*. Naturally, this was rejected; and the fuming merchant with his counsel took the apparently accepted Spanish step of waiting upon the judge appointed to try the case when called, who immediately declared the seizure to be illegal, pledging himself to set it aside in due season. When the day of trial came, that dispenser of justice was away on sick leave. To save delay and the year's crop, the victim consented to compromise on half the costs; thus the lawyers were paid, but I never could hear anything of the original creditor.

Such facts as the above are readily explicable through the absence of a firm public opinion in a country where absolute illiteracy is the lot of a deplorably large number; where the usual difficulty of bringing pressure to bear on corruption or venality is increased by the vast mass of ignorant indifference precluded from hearing of abuses. How can there be a general active interest in public affairs when fully sixty-five out of every hundred can neither read nor write? This very condition, however, has for centuries produced other effects, singularly local in their character, yet testifying to the shrewd, practical wisdom of the Spaniard, if once thoroughly interested in his own affairs. *La política regionalista* is the conventional generic phrase that covers all these forms. It is this that has established on a firm working basis a number of institutions circumscribed, it is true, in a narrow region of activity, yet capable of achieving a variety of good results without let or hindrance from central authorities. Such, for instance, are the Conservatory of Music at Malaga (supported by local private subscription), the School of Fine Arts at Palma de Mallorca, the truly admirable Archives of Catalonia and Aragon at Barcelona, besides a host of other examples which any observant traveller may easily find for himself in the intervals of visits to conventional sights, and to which the never-failing courtesy of the Spaniard will grant the stranger a prompt, even eager, admittance. Many of such institutions are of comparatively recent growth; but, deep down in the traditions and customs of that most intensely conservative of peoples, the spirit of independence has planted others, less conspicuous perhaps to the casual eye, but far more ancient, and belonging in their very essence to that strong, self-reliant habit of conduct which is involved in the manifold meanings of the term *Españolismo*. As it was my privilege some months ago to observe one of these in full working order, I take pleasure in recording my impressions, more particularly as no familiar work of Spanish travel (not even Ford) devotes a single paragraph to this example of popular wisdom and forethought.

In order to understand its nature, it must be borne in mind that the Mediterranean coast of Spain, when not cut by bold, perpendicular mountain-bluffs, consists of a flat, alluvial plain, varying considerably in width, and watered less by rain than through the numerous streams of the ranges accompanying the sea line for miles and miles of level length. The natural fertility of this coast region is phenomenal; one needs but to traverse the *huertas* of Malaga, Murcia, or Alicante to obtain a thrilling impression of simply inexhaustible wealth, which the patient hand labor of the Iberian peasant works up, season after season, into the splendor of vegetation that covers it all. As I stood on the apex of the citadel of Saguntum, rising, as it were, an isolated, impregnable pyramid out of that marvellous plain, and turned first towards Valencia, all ruddy pink and gold under the slanting rays, then northwards where the seemingly endless green stretches vanished in the powdery haze of the late afternoon, I realized for the first time the full meaning of that siege on which hung for a season the rival destinies of Carthage and Rome. To keep this region constantly supplied with water (in view of the comparatively light rainfall of that sunny clime) was a problem solved centuries ago by the ingenious industry of the Moors, who devised a system of irrigation as complete and elaborate as that which the *campesinos* of the *Vega* of Granada have allowed to fall into a state of relative neglect.

A most interesting drive may be taken to the outskirts of Valencia, or any other coast town, for the purpose of verifying the perfection of comparatively simple appliances by which the crops are kept so constantly green until the long summer has scorched the fields to a uniform brown or dusty gray. This system of local canals, with plain wooden sluices easily manipulated, distributes over the whole coast plain the abundant waters of the mountain torrents, without which the country would remain an almost barren desert. Rain water, with its fertilizing qualities, would no doubt be preferable, and several proverbs or maxims, current in the locality, testify to the value of an exceptional rainfall; but, failing this, the peasant is but too eager to avail himself of the priceless fluid distributed over the soil by a network of narrow waterways so constantly fed that the supply fails only in the rarest of dry years. To establish and pay a system of official inspectors for this system, under the control of a "central irrigation office," would involve the creation of a special bureaucracy with all the familiar weaknesses of such Spanish *juntas*, of which the peasants have, naturally enough, an uncomfortable suspicion, preferring to keep the whole management in their own hands and to settle all cases of dispute according to the fashion bequeathed by traditional practice from their ancestors in the days of presumably indifferent Moorish rule. There has thus developed, in this locality, an absolutely unique court of arbitration, which testifies in its workings to the practical and expeditious common sense of the men whose nerves and muscles make a garden of the Valencian province. I am informed by a friend learned in the law that to the existence of this court there is but one reference in English legal works. Cases calling for such intervention arise, of course, from the fact that a farmer is charged with having opened the sluices for a longer time than he is entitled to; but I was also given to understand that in a quiet way much private litigation is warded off through the influence of the wise men whose ostensible duty is with water disputes alone. As the Athenian stranger says in the 'Laws' of Plato: "There might be an excellent judge who, finding the family distracted, not only did not destroy any one, but reconciled them to one another ever after, and gave them laws which they mutually observed, and was able to keep them friends."

P. T. L.

ELVIRA'S LETTERS TO LAMARTINE.

PARIS, February 8, 1905.

Criticism and inspiration are almost incompatible terms. There is, at the present time, in our critical school a tendency to look for the sources of inspiration in the incidents of every-day life. The private life of the great writers is scrutinized with the utmost care, and their works are explained by their acts. No writer can help, of course, finding elements in his surroundings; but our critics do not perhaps, keep enough in mind the creative power of imagination. Chateaubriand, Balzac, Sainte-Beuve, Victor Hugo, Lamartine, all are in turn subjected to a process of criticism which seems to have for its object to bring them down to the common level of humanity.

I shall speak to-day only of Lamartine, who was and is still the idol of all who remain faithful to the most ideal poetry. When his "Meditations" appeared, they were an event, as much as would be the apparition in the sky of a new and brilliant planet. Their inspiration was different from that of the preceding age, from the eighteenth century to the end of the Revolutionary and Imperial period. It was so different that the first publisher who read the manuscript returned it with these words: "It is not in the style of the age." Lamartine published the first "Meditations" at his own expense, I believe; only fifteen hundred copies were printed, and most of them were distributed by him to his friends before he started for Rome as secretary of embassy. An article in the *Journal des Débats* drew the attention of the public to the young poet; the success of the "Meditations" was instantaneous, and several editions had to be printed in rapid succession. The "New Meditations," printed a short time afterwards, continued the success of the first. There was in these two volumes a new note—a profound, a religious feeling; a love of nature which was not the admiration of a pagan, but the gratitude of man to the Creator, a feeling for the sublime in the creation; an expression of love which was not profane and sensual, but had a purity and an elevation altogether unknown in the preceding age.

Lamartine says in his 'Raphaël': "One always finds whole in a man the first woman whom he loved." Who was, for him, this first woman? Who was the inspirer of the first "Meditations"? Who was the per-

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son whom he calls Elvire, this sister of Beatrice and of Laura? The secret was long suspected by the personal friends of Lamartine; it has recently been revealed by M. Charles de Monterot, a grand-nephew of Lamartine, now living at Saint-Point, who has authorized the publication of the letters written to his great-uncle by the mysterious Elvire—those, at least, which the poet did not destroy, and which were religiously kept in his room at Saint-Point. The real name of Elvire was Julie Françoise Bouchaud des Hérettes. She was born in 1782, of French parentage, in San Domingo. In 1791 her parents fled from the island. Madame des Hérettes died at sea; her husband arrived in France with two daughters, and lived for some time in Brittany. Julie was placed in a school, and, when her education came to an end, lived with her father at La Grange, near Tours. Julie was twenty-five years old when she was married to M. Charles, who was fifty-seven years old. He was a scientific man, who acquired some celebrity in his time by the bold balloon ascent which he made in 1783 with Pilâtre de Rozier (it was the second of the kind, next after Montgolfier's). M. Charles became much enamoured of Julie, who was very unhappy with her ill-tempered father; marriage was for her a deliverance. Charles was an excellent man, absolutely devoted to his wife, who had very delicate health. He made her acquainted with many distinguished people, chiefly with members of the Institute. At the time of the Restoration, Madame Charles had a salon, where she received Suard, Lally-Tollendal, Bonald, Lainé, and many others.

For the sake of her health, Madame Charles passed a season at Aix, in July, 1816; and it was there that she met Alphonse de Lamartine. He was twenty-four years old, and had been educated in his province, in a serious and religious family; he had no occupation, and spent his leisure hours in writing verse. He was at the time an unsuccessful applicant for a post in diplomacy. He wrote of his sensations at this period:

"I don't know what vague and sublime and infinite ideas cross my mind, every moment, at night especially, when I am, as at present, confined to my room, and hear no other noises than the rain and the wind. Yes, I believe, if, for my misfortune, I should meet one of those faces which I once dreamed of, I would love her as much as our hearts can love, as much as man ever loved on earth."

This was written in 1814 to a friend, Aymon de Virieu. Two years afterwards he met Madame Charles; they saw much of each other, and both fell in love. To this romantic attachment we owe some of the finest verses which French literature can boast.

When autumn came, Lamartine returned to Milly, and afterwards to Mâcon, while Julie returned to Paris. Lamartine had not the means of living in Paris and keeping there an apartment of his own; his friend Virieu offered him a room in his own apartments in the Rue Neuve Saint-Augustin. As soon as he was in the capital, he again saw Madame Charles. The first visit he paid her took place on Christmas Day. She received him in the midst of numerous visitors, but in the evening, when everybody was gone, she wrote to him a long letter which he received the next morning. "I ask myself if it was not a celestial apparition which God sent me, if I shall see it again, if I shall see my beloved child, the angel I adore." At the end of the ardent letter, she explained that she would see him the next day, and where she would see him. We have also the exact text of two long letters which Lamartine received from her on the 1st and 2d of January.

Love letters cannot be analyzed; we always read them, when they are addressed to others, in a critical spirit. Madame Charles's letters are very serious, and not in the tone of ordinary love letters. She touches political questions, while admitting that women have to receive advice rather than give it.

"On their part there must be submission and deference, and I assure you that I am wholly conscious of my duty. I like to recognize your superiority and I am proud of it. . . . I shall make it my happiness and my duty, dear Alphonse, to take your advice and to follow it unrestrictedly. . . . What a good woman I should be with you! What an ordinary woman I am for others. Such is love! What virtues it inspires when its object is worthy of it! I feel that my Alphonse would raise me even to sublimity."

She speaks to him of his verses: "I have read them, or rather devoured them." She has not recognized herself in Elvire:

"Oh," she says, "who will give you back Elvire? Who was loved like her? Who deserves it so much? I see her as you have painted her. This angelic woman inspires me with a religious fright. I see her as you have painted her, and I ask myself, What am I, to pretend to the place which she occupied in your heart? Alphonse, you must keep it for her and look on me always as your mother. You gave me that name when I believed that I was worthy of a most tender one. But since I see all that Elvire was to you, I see also that it was not without reflection that you felt that you could only be my child. I even begin to think that you ought to be that only."

She tells him that she will be content with his filial affection:

"Dear Alphonse, I will try to be satisfied with that. The warmth of my soul and of my feelings would like to add another passion to it, and oh that I might be allowed to love you *d'amour et de tous les amours*. But if I must conceal it from you, my angel, if you are really so much in heaven that you repel all earthly passion, I will be silent, Alphonse. . . . I will ask God for strength, and will suffer myself to love you in silence."

There is a sort of confusion in these letters between Elvire, the imaginary creature to whom Lamartine addressed his first verse, and the real Elvire, Madame Charles. Curiously enough, the real Elvire was jealous of the other. Lamartine wrote a commentary on the poem entitled "À Elvire" in the last edition of his works.

"These," he says, "were love-letters written in memory of a young Neapolitan girl of whose death I have told in my 'Confidences.' Her name was Graziella. The verses constituted part of a publication, in two volumes, of my early youth, which I burned in 1820. My friends kept some of them and gave them back to me when I wrote my 'Meditations.' I detached these examples, and wrote the name of Elvire in place of the name of Graziella."

These are the verses about which Julie Charles wrote in January, 1817. There was no confusion in her mind. She loved Lamartine; she questioned M. de Virieu, his friend, on the subject of Graziella, and was amazed at his coolness in regard to it. She had almost a quarrel with Lamartine, finding him also too cool, and complained to him of the selfishness of mankind. She had been formed in the school of Rousseau, and was very sentimental.

Lamartine composed his most famous poem, "Le Lac," in September, 1819. Julie was in a very poor state of health; she was at that moment at Viroflay, near Versailles. She wrote him a letter on the 10th of November, ending thus: "Adieu, my friend. I love you always like a good and tender mother." She died on the 18th of December following. M. de Virieu was with her, and took from her deathbed her crucifix, which he gave to Lamartine. When Lamartine was married, he gave to his first child, a girl, the name of Julie.

Correspondence.

THE YALE LIBRARY OF 1743.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have at hand a copy of the first catalogue of the Yale College Library, prepared by President Clap, and printed in New London, in 1743. This catalogue is not arranged alphabetically, but is partially conformed to the principles of classification laid down in Samuel Johnson's 'Introduction to the Study of Philosophy, exhibiting a General View of all the Arts and Sciences, for the Use of Pupils'—a treatise which Clap incorporated in the same volume with his list of books. In his "Advertisement to the Students of Yale College," prefixed to the catalogue, the President advises his pupils "to pursue a regular course of academical studies in some measure according to this catalogue. And in the first year to study principally the tongues, arithmetic, and algebra; the second, logic, rhetoric, and geometry; the third, mathematics and natural philosophy, and the fourth, ethics and divinity. Other less principal studies may be occasionally intermix't with these." Those who are familiar with the history of the Yale curriculum will notice that, on certain important lines, its character and arrangement were early determined and have been faithfully adhered to.

In contrast with the 400,000 volumes in the modern library, the Yale collection of 1743 contained only about 2,600 volumes, of which a considerable number had come through the recent liberal gift of Bishop Berkeley. But an examination of the titles shows that, with a few exceptions, the college possessed a fairly comprehensive assortment of books. The first section, under the heading "Languages, English," contains only two titles, "The English Grammar" and "Dr. Watts on Reading and Writing English"—no doubt an inadequate apparatus according to modern notions of how English should be studied. In those days, however, educated men got their English through the classics, and in Greek and Latin the Yale Library was relatively strong. The departments of history, natural philosophy, medicine, Biblical literature and theology are all well represented. The last division of the catalogue, "Plays and Books of Diversion," includes thirteen titles, viz., Addison's "Cato," Ben Jonson, Fontenelle's Dialogues, Gray's Fables, 'The Dunciad,' Shakspere, Steele, 'Don Quixote,'

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Wycherley, Rowe's Tragedies, Otway's Plays, Spenser, and "The Turkish Spy."

JOHN WINTHROP PLATNER.

ANDOVER, MASS., February 24, 1905.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will pursue their reprints of Trollope with a series to be called "Manor House Novels," beginning with 'Orley Farm.' A log-book for automobiles is also to be published by this firm.

The Germans have decided that they, too, must have a 'Who's Who.' A Leipzig firm is publishing it under the title of 'Wer ist es?' It includes at least 1,500 contemporary celebrities.

'How to Write: A Handbook Based on the English Bible,' by Charles Sears Baldwin of Yale, is in the press of Macmillan.

The London Folklore Society (for collecting and printing relics of popular antiquities) has just put out the latest instalment of its valuable publications (David Nutt). 'The Folklore of the Musquakie Indians,' the volume for 1902, describes a people who have been worsted in the struggle with civilization and are now, so to speak, on the point of death, and rescues for the student beliefs and traditions that would otherwise be lost for ever. The author, Miss Owen, is a native of Missouri, and is intimately acquainted with her Indians. She deals in turn with their mythical origin and early history, their government and religion, their dances—perhaps their most characteristic institution—and the ceremonial of their births, marriages, and deaths. Her style is attractive and sympathetic; she has a keen eye for the human interest, the comedy, and the pathos of her subject, and her story will appeal as well to the general reader as to the folklorist and ethnologist. The catalogue with which the book ends relates to a unique collection of Musquakie bead-work and religious implements, which with rare generosity Miss Owen has presented to the Society, and which is now on view in the Museum of Archæology at Cambridge.

'The Folklore of Northumberland,' the volume for 1903, is the newest issue in the County Folklore Series. It is made up of notes, collected by Mrs. M. C. Balfour and Mr. Northcote Thomas, on the superstitious beliefs and practices, the traditional customs, the traditional narratives, and the folk-sayings of the district. We note that some typical features of border folklore—the slogans and warcries, the nicknames, proverbs, and legends—are but slightly represented in its pages. This is due to the fact that a great deal of space has been devoted to them in previous publications of the Society, in Henderson's 'Northern Counties' (1879) and in the two volumes of the Denham Tracts (1891 and 1895). The sections on the life of the people, their games, their weddings, their harvest homes, etc., and on their traditional songs and ballads, refer more seldom to these works, and are perhaps the most profitable reading. The original version of "A Pennywite of Pins," known only at Alnwick, is printed here for the first time.

'La Marraine de Peau d'Âne,' by G. Franay (Paris: Armand Colin), is a recent number of the "Bibliothèque de Romans pour les jeunes filles," and is intended for girls of fourteen or fifteen, a difficult age for which to provide fiction. The tale is an echo of the famous *conte* of Perrault, and describes the adventures of a modern Cinderella who manages to lead a double life, spending her days as a nurse-maid and her evenings in bewitching the inevitable Prince Charming by her ravishing toilettes, the relics of former prosperity. Nothing could be less realistic; the narrative has all the atmosphere of a fairy-tale with a background of modern Swiss resorts and English tourists. It is written in a light, pleasing style, and can be recommended for the perusal of any young person in whom it is desired to nourish romance.

Commissioner Swan's seventeenth report on the custody and condition of the Massachusetts Public Records abounds, as usual, in sound and searching comment on existing—generally, thanks to his long insistence, improving—conditions. His chapter on the intrusion of politics into this sphere of government is bold and faithful. Two practical details are worth citing: "[My] tests prove that an ink that is proper for use upon records should have a tendency to 'bite' into the pen as it should to 'bite' into the paper." "Canvas bindings have from time to time been advised as preferable to leather because of their resistance to heat in a safe. Inspection of the ruins of the Springfield city hall showed their superiority as well in resisting flame."

The annual report of the Library of Congress possesses more than ordinary interest. Mr. Putnam's general survey is accompanied by the report of the Register of Copyright, by a list of manuscript and map accessions, and by a sketch of the publication of historical material by the United States Government—this last from the pen of Mr. Worthington Ford. From the head of the manuscripts department we have also some account of the exceptional character of the papers acquired during the year—Van Buren, Polk, Andrew Johnson, Duff Green, Clayton, Thornton, Kent, and Washburne. President Johnson's collection is both extensive and of great value for the student of his turbulent administration; in particular it is rich in official reports on the condition of the South during reconstruction. The manuscripts, of which the Southern portion is especially welcome, require already twenty steel safes, and Mr. Ford anticipates the early need of doubling this insurance. The changes in the personnel of the Library show it to be a swarming-hive of training, and point to the general diffusion of its methods and aims by the going out of so many apostles all over the country.

The arrangement of Robert Morrill McCurdy's bibliography of articles relating to holidays (The Boston Book Co.) is not easily accounted for, being neither alphabetical nor logical; nor is it rectified by an index. So much said, the list may be pronounced useful.

Of quite another order is the John Crerar Library's 'List of Cyclopedias and Dictionaries, with a List of Directories' (Chicago). Under each heading, the chronology of publication is reversed—that is, the newest works stand first, tapering off to the oldest. English works sometimes precede foreign. Bibliographical details are very liberal, and include the names of publishers. There is an index. The collection represents only this Library's possessions.

Mr. Charles Henry Hart, in the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* for January, makes a text of Pine and Savage's painting of "The Congress Voting Independence," now owned by him. This canvas antedates Trumbull's more artistic treatment of the same theme, and has a value for its portraiture and for its correct record of the architecture of the room. It was painted, in fact, in Independence Hall. A photographic copy of it is the magazine's frontispiece. Some good Franklin-iana may be found in "Excerpts from the Papers of Dr. Benjamin Rush." The sage told how "the judges in Mexico, being ordered to prosecute a man for peculation, found him innocent, for which, they said, 'they were sorry both for his own and their sakes.'"

Dr. Erman's plan for a printed card catalogue of the books in the larger German libraries, which we mentioned some time ago, has been further discussed in the later numbers of the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*. In the December number E. Kuhnert and A. Wolfstieg criticised the whole scheme adversely, finding it extravagant and impossible of execution. In the January number, the editor of the *Zentralblatt*, Dr. Schwenke, takes a more favorable view. He regards the suggestion on the whole as one of the most important propositions ever made on the subject of co-operative cataloguing, though he finds the part relating to a uniform classification rather weak. He points out the clumsiness of the present procedure of sending the manuscript entries which have been prepared in Berlin on the circuit from library to library, and suggests that the entries be printed at once and printed copies sent to each of the coöperating libraries for comparison and addition. This, as Milkau pointed out in his 'Centralkataloge und Titeldrucke' (1897), has, of course, the disadvantage that many titles will be duplicated by several libraries. If it comes down to a choice of evils, the question will have to be decided as to which is the greater, a certain amount of duplication or the waste of time incident to the present plan.

From the same number we learn that the Prussian Kultusministerium has appointed a commission to formulate a plan for the elaboration of a bibliographical catalogue of all existing incunabula. Professor Haebler of Dresden is chairman; the other members being Dr. Vouillième in Berlin and K. Burger of Leipzig, all well-known authorities in this field. Some years ago the suggestion was made that the inauguration of such a plan would be a fitting way to celebrate the five-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Gutenberg. Mr. John Thomson of the Free Library of Philadelphia took up the idea with great enthusiasm, and began to collect material for a catalogue of incunabula in American libraries. Nothing came of the plan at the time, however, though Mr. Thomson succeeded in collecting valuable information in regard to the most important collections of incunabula in public libraries in this country, including those in the Lenox and Newberry libraries, and, of course, in the Free Library of Philadelphia. It is interesting to learn that he is now engaged in editing the list for the Bibliographical Society of America. The great significance of this lies in the fact that

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the new society will thus from the beginning take part in an international movement while contributing an important piece of work in the field of American library literature.

International features are pushing to the front in matters bibliographical and bibliothecal. The chief note of the St. Louis conference of the American Library Association was decidedly international, and an important step was taken towards the realization of the hope expressed vaguely by President Francis in his address of greeting, that, as the Philadelphia conference of 1876 engendered the American Library Association, the St. Louis conference might lead to the formation of an International Library Association. A more distinct form was given to this idea through Dr. Biagi's proposition that an International Federation of Library and Bibliographical Associations be formed. The matter is now in the hands of a strong committee, consisting of Messrs. Herbert Putnam, William Coolidge Lane, and Cyrus Adler.

Some time ago the *Evening Post* printed communications, chiefly from Professor Gayley of the University of California, regarding the publication of a collection of facsimile reproductions of the most important manuscripts in European libraries. The recent disaster to the Turin University Library has led the Belgian Minister of the Interior and of Public Instruction to call a congress to discuss this very subject, in connection with next summer's International Exposition in Liège. A commission has been appointed to make the necessary arrangement, with Prof. G. Kurth of the University of Liège as president, and P. J. van den Gheyn, curator of the manuscripts section of the Royal Library at Brussels, as secretary. The commission has already held several meetings, the proceedings of which are printed in the *Revue des Bibliothèques et Archives de Belgique.*

In the January issue of the *Quarterly Statement* of the Palestine Exploration Fund, Mr. Macalister presents his tenth quarterly report on the excavations at Gezer. There is little that is new. A fragment of a wall which, in his last report, he "thought might be identified with the foundations of the Crusaders' Castle of Mont Gisart," turns out, on further excavation, to be a gateway of a much earlier date, "no doubt the main entrance to the city in the Maccabæan period." Recent work has confirmed "the observation already made that there are" in Gezer "eight strata of building," the accumulated débris of which is 28 feet in depth. Below this there are still twelve feet of débris above the solid rock, representing an occupation of the site by a more primitive population, and in the rock itself are caves. Mr. Macalister formerly assigned these troglodytic remains to a period about 3000 B. C., and the commencement of the Semitic occupation approximately to 2000 B. C. We pointed out in these columns at the time (No. 2040, p. 99) that his evidence seemed in fact to favor a date about 3000 rather than one about 2000 B. C. for the commencement of the Semitic occupation. Mr. Macalister now finds himself forced to adopt this date, and assigns "the beginning of life on the mound to 4000 B. C."

In volume xvi., No. 63, of the *Jewish Quarterly Review*, Dr. Schechter published a Hebrew fragment, consisting in all of seven sheets, or fourteen pages, with two columns of eighteen or nineteen lines on each page, discovered, like the Hebrew text of Ecclesiasticus, in the Genîzeh of old Cairo in Egypt. From the system of punctuation and other peculiarities it was clear that this manuscript was Oriental in origin, and written not later than the twelfth century A. D. The original work Dr. Schechter assigned, on the ground of internal evidence, to a date not earlier than the tenth century of the Christian era. Dr. Lazare Belléli discusses the same fragment in a little pamphlet entitled 'Un Nouvel Apocryphe' (London: Luzac & Co.), in which he endeavors to show that it belongs in fact to a work of the same character as Job, Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, Ecclesiasticus, Wisdom, and Pirke Aboth, the so-called Wisdom Literature, and that it was composed some time between the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus and the revolt under Bar-Kochba, roughly 70-135 A. D. So far from a doctrine of five senses, which Schechter thought he found, and which he regarded as evidence of acquaintance with Greek philosophy through the medium of Arabic, Belléli points out that the writer really speaks of six "doors," a genuinely Hebrew conception (compare, for instance, Psalm 115), viz., mouth, eyes, ears, nose, hands, and feet. The linguistic peculiarities of this fragment seem to Dr. Belléli to indicate a period when Hebrew was still a living tongue, which he thinks to have been the case in the first post-Christian century. The original work belonged, in his judgment, next after the Book of Wisdom, to which it is, on the whole, superior. While Belléli's arguments are ingenious and sometimes plausible, doubtless the verdict of Jewish scholars will be that Schechter was correct in his general results, and that this is no new apocrypha, but a fragment of a mediæval philosophical treatise otherwise unknown.

The birthday of Charles Dickens was celebrated in London, on February 7, by a dinner of the Boz Club, at which the chairman, Lord James of Hereford, dwelt upon the novelist's influence as a social reformer. The Poor Laws, for instance, were administered now with far greater clemency than when 'Oliver Twist' was written. Lord Chancellor Halsbury, while extolling Dickens as a writer, doubted whether his fame was increased by putting him forward either as a politician or as a social reformer. Mr. Choate said that "the man who could make the whole world indulge in honest laughter was one of the great benefactors of the world." But his main theme was the popularity of Dickens's stories in America, illustrating his point by relating an incident which happened in New York at the time of the publication of 'Dombey and Son' (1846-48). The last number received here had left it doubtful whether Paul would live. "When the next steamer arrived at the docks, the passengers saw with considerable alarm a great crowd of people on the quays. Their fears were dispelled, however, when they discovered that what the crowd wanted was to know whether Paul Dombey died or no."

Our readers are aware of Professor Waldstein's hope, under international auspices, to undertake the excavation of Herculaneum. The Italian Cultus Ministry has, however, published an official declaration to the following effect: (1) that Professor Waldstein some time ago had conferred with Minister Orlando in reference to this project, but that enormous difficulties at once presented themselves; (2) that the Italian Government had since heard nothing further of the matter, and had never seen any concrete proposal regarding it; (3) that Italy is very grateful for the enthusiasm of foreign savants touching the archæological treasures it possesses, but that, for good and solid reasons, especially of a national kind, it could never consent to permit an international body to conduct or to manage any archæological researches in the kingdom. The Scientific Supplement of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 10, reports from Rome that the International Congress of Artists in session in that city had declared that the excavation of Herculaneum should be undertaken by the Italian Government, and carried out by Italian scholars.

In the recent Italian elections no fewer than thirty-nine university men were elected to the Parliament; namely, eighteen ordinary and four extraordinary professors and seventeen privat-docents; or, according to another arrangement, twenty-two jurists, ten medical men, five from the philosophical faculties, and two representing political economy. The University of Naples heads the list, with fourteen representatives; followed by Rome with eleven. Padua has two, Bologna two, Parma two, Ferrara one, Messina one, Modena two, Catania one, and Pavia one. Politically, these academic parliamentarians are distributed as follows: Twenty-two are Constitutionalists, nine Radicals, five Social Democrats, and three Republicans.

The International Congress of Archæologists in Athens will be opened on April 7 by the Crown Prince on the Acropolis. On the following day the sessions begin, and will extend over eight days. The work is to be divided into seven sections, viz.: (1) Classical Archæology; (2) Prehistoric Antiquities and Oriental Peoples; (3) Excavations, Museums, and Conservation of Old Monuments; (4) Epigraphic Archæology and Numismatics; (5) Christian Archæology and that of the Middle Ages in general; (6) Archæological Teaching; (7) Geography and Topography in their relation to Archæology. In connection with the congress, excursions are being arranged for to the Peloponnesus, Crete, Smyrna, Samothrace, and Asia Minor, to examine the ruins of Ephesus, Pergamon, and Melos.

—If the public was at first slow to attach adequate importance to Mr. Luther D. Burbank's experiments in artificially stimulated plant variation, it is certainly making up for that neglect at the present time. The March *Century* adds the first of two papers to the rapidly swelling magazine literature on the subject. Mr. Burbank's results seem hardly more surprising than the volume and rapidity of experiment by which they have been secured. One brain, with but little money at its command, has accomplished what might well seem an adequate achievement for a well organized and supported bureau in the Department of Agriculture during an entire generation. Indeed, it is greatly to the discredit of the American way of doing things that Mr. Burbank has not long ago been placed at the head of such a bureau,

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with a perfectly free hand and ample means and men at his disposal for carrying on his work to the utmost possible advantage. But perhaps it would have been hard to find the money without cutting into the annual garden-seed distribution. It is highly creditable to the management of the Carnegie Institution that it has voted Mr. Burbank a subvention of $10,000 a year for ten years, in spite of his entire lack of scholastic pretensions. Eastern problems are, in this number of the magazine, treated by Richard Barry, "the only American correspondent with the Japanese forces before Port Arthur from the beginning of the investment," and David Bell MacGowan, who has secured personal interviews for the *Century* with Tolstoy, Witte, and various other Russians of international prominence. Mr. Barry deals especially with the effective siege operations, the success of which he attributes to the Japanese readiness to adapt any idea whatever, old or new, to the situation of the moment. Mr. MacGowan writes of the outlook for reform in Russia, but suffers seriously from the rapidly shifting situation, which inevitably puts a magazine article out of date before it can cross the gap between the pen and the reader. Harrison S. Morris, the Managing Director of the Pennsylvania Academy, writes of Philadelphia's contribution to American art, from the time when Benjamin West "came into Penn's good old village of tree-bordered streets and undeviating angles and founded American art," down to Violet Oakley, Jessie Wilcox Smith, and Elizabeth Shippen Green.

—Miss Florence Trail has compiled 'A History of Italian Literature' (New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer), which evinces on her part a laudable interest in the subject. She tells us in her preface: "The toil involved in judicious selection may be understood when I say that, out of 37 poets who preceded Dante, I selected 7; out of the 100 Latin poets of the age of Leo X., I chose 1; out of 660 sonneteers, 6; out of 5,000 comedies, 9; out of the 70 poets between 1850 and 1885, 3; etcetera." Certainly, old Father Time himself cannot at this rate compare with Miss Trail as a winnower. Only 9 comedies out of 5,000! But nobody need complain nowadays of a too strict sifting of literary celebrities. Miss Trail's method is to give a brief, almost gossipy account of the life of each author; then to mention his works; and finally to criticise them, the criticism being either original or selected. Miss Trail's first guide was Cesare Cantù, but she has evidently consulted many more recent and perhaps safer critics, and has diligently delved in biographical dictionaries and literary manuals. Her enthusiasm is contagious. She moves about among the masters of Italian literature with naïve confidence in her power to appraise them. Her most serious work is the epitome of the 'Divine Comedy.' Her reflections, however, though original, are not always important: For instance: "It is evident," she says, "that Petrarch cannot be understood from hearsay. One must drink deep of the Pierian spring he has unlocked, and then it will be impossible not to rejoice in the niche he occupies in the Temple of Fame." A person who wished to get a general idea of the development of Italian literature with personal information about its creators, and would not be disturbed by the amateurishness into which Miss Trail occasionally lapses—witness the passage just quoted—might find what he needed in her book. She dedicates it "to the Few who still love literature," and yet, according to a circular which accompanies it, we are assured that "Professor Uhler, Provost of the Peabody Institute of Baltimore, says the demand for this book will run to a hundred thousand when it is properly placed before the public."

—The character and career of Montalembert are well calculated to awaken the enthusiasm of Roman Catholics on this side of the Atlantic. In Canada, Sir Wilfrid Laurier has often declared himself a liberal Catholic, following in the footsteps of Montalembert and Lacordaire; and among the Catholics of the United States we imagine that there are more who sympathize with Montalembert than with Joseph de Maistre. Whether or not our conjecture be correct, a fresh sign of interest in the works of this famous orator, historian, and academician is now observable. We refer to the translation which Mr. Francis D. Hoyt has made of Montalembert's 'St. Elizabeth of Hungary' (Longmans). This biography, when originally published, was designed to be a vindication of the Ages of Faith against the ages of unbelief. Montalembert, in his famous speech on religious liberty delivered in 1844, exclaimed: "Nous sommes les fils des Croisés, et nous ne reculerons jamais devant les fils de Voltaire." Couched in less militant form, the 'Life of St. Elizabeth,' which was written in 1836, has something of the same spirit. The introduction, as a piece of rhetoric, is extremely beautiful. The author, finding himself in Marburg on St. Elizabeth's feast-day, is impressed by the lack of reverence for her memory which is displayed in this city of Lutheranism, where exactly six centuries earlier the Duchess of Thuringia had died. And so he resolved to write once more of the woman who there at Marburg "consecrated the last days of her life to works of heroic charity." Edification, then, furnishes the main motive of the book, but at the same time it is not unmarked by a certain controversial purpose. From the translator's preface it may be inferred that Mr. Hoyt has been moved by similar sentiments in placing the book thus directly before Americans. "To the Catholic mind," he says, "it is indeed 'strange and incomprehensible' that in this 'enlightened age' educated people, who pride themselves upon their knowledge and their liberal views on all subjects, should be in such profound ignorance of the faith and spirit of Catholics." But there are those who contend that St. Elizabeth does not belong to the Romanists alone, and a striking comment on Mr. Hoyt's preface will be found in Charles Kingsley's preface to his "Saint's Tragedy." Over against Montalembert's panegyric on the Ages of Faith may be set, if only for contrast, these words from Kingsley's prose preface to his own drama in praise of St. Elizabeth: "For the more coarse and homely passages with which the drama is interspersed, I must make the same apology: I put them there because they were there—because the Middle Age was, in the gross, a coarse, barbarous, and profligate age—because it was necessary, in order to bring out fairly the beauty of the central character, to show 'the crooked and perverse generation' in which she was 'a child of God, without rebuke.'"

—The history of religious freedom in Brazil was succinctly told in a chapter (pendent to one on the history of Catholicism) requested of Mr. J. C. Rodrigues for the Brazilian Centennial volume of 1900, and hurriedly put together. It has been separately reprinted by a Scottish press in a very attractive and handy form, and issued from the office of the Rio *Jornal do Commercio* (of which Mr. Rodrigues is the editor), under the title 'Religiões Acatholicas no Brazil, 1500-1900.' One misses very much a table of contents and an index, a chronological table, and varied running-titles. For the rest, the author has compressed within less than 300 pages a great deal of Portuguese and Brazilian history, setting forth at some length the terrible condition of the mother country under Jesuit rule and the self-imposed yoke of the Inquisition, which lasted in Portugal till 1820, in Brazil till 1810. It was reserved for the Republic in 1890 to fix in its charter the separation of Church and State, setting an example to all the other South American republics. Mr. Rodrigues, while not concealing his own liberal views, supplies with fairness and with a minimum of comment on opposing opinion the sentiments pro and con that emerged in the legislative and constitutional debates from the era of independence to the downfall of the monarchy and the present republican régime. He finally considers in detail the fortunes of the various non-Catholic denominations, devoting fifty pages to Positivism, and so reaching a veritable climax of interest, whether we consider the schism which led to the bold denial of the leadership of Laffitte, Comte's successor, or the disproportionate part which the little Brazilian group played in liberalizing the Constitution and furnishing a Positivist motto, "Order and Progress," to the flag of the Republic. In this extraordinary narrative Mr. Rodrigues's sympathy is obviously enlisted most warmly, and one remarks in it his loving portrait, by the way, of Benjamin Constant. The faithful, it appears, do not grow in numbers. Those who contribute to the Positivist sustentation fund increased from five in 1876 to 220 in 1892, and have since then fallen below 200.

—In a recent number of the *Astronomische Nachrichten*, Professor Turner of Oxford has an appreciative article on the late Frank McClean, F.R.S., LL.D., in whose death English astronomy has suffered a severe loss. His invention of the spectroscopic eyepiece, introduced by Mr. John Browning to the Royal Society, first made his name generally known more than thirty years ago; and ever since then successive operations by his own hands have firmly established his reputation. He presented to the Royal Society in 1889 his fine photographs of the red end of the spectrum, comprising just half the visible spectrum, and beside them were shown subsidiary photographs of the green to violet, so that comparisons of value were rendered exceptionally easy. All McClean's work exhibited similar thoroughness, and his great industry permitted a surprising amount of achievement. Parallel photographs of the spectra of the sun, iron, and iridium; comparative pictures of high and low sun spectra, and of sun and metallic spectra, were exhibited, all on a large scale.

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By means of a heliostat mounted on the roof of his own house at Tunbridge Wells, sunlight was reflected into his photographic telescope, an instrument stopped down to four inches aperture, of 98 inches focal length, and fixed parallel to the polar axis. Until 1890 a large Rutherfurd grating was used; after that a Rowland plane grating. Certain of his metallic spectra are of rare metals difficult to obtain. In 1895, with a Sir Howard Grubb telescope (of the pattern adopted for the Astrographic Chart, but with an objective prism, angle 20 degrees, added), he began a systematic survey of the spectra of stars brighter than three and one-half magnitude, in the northern heavens. This completed within a year, he carried the prism to the Cape of Good Hope, in 1897, mounting it on a telescope like his own, and there extended his survey to the whole sky—a noteworthy feat for one man, single-handed, and for which he deservedly received the gold medal of the Royal Astronomical Society, in 1899. In addition to mechanical and scientific work, Dr. McClean made generous gifts to astronomy, among them the foundation (£12,500) at Cambridge of three "Isaac Newton studentships," for research in astronomy and physical optics; and he presented telescopes to the Cape Observatory. At his death, last November, he left bequests to many universities and scientific societies.

THE HOUSE OF BARBÈRA.

Annali Bibliografici e Catalogo Ragionato delle Edizioni di Barbèra, etc. 1854-1880. Florence: G. Barbèra. 1904. 4to, pp. 597.

Two years ago we had occasion to review Viscount Goschen's Life of his grandfather, Georg Joachim Göschen (1753-1828), publisher to Klopstock, Wieland, Schiller, and Goethe, an eminent figure in the German book-trade of the Revolutionary and Napoleonic era. This work bore the imprint of John Murray; and hardly yet out of mind is Samuel Smiles's chronicle of the house of Murray under the rule of the second John (1778-1843). Now we have a like record of the house of Barbèra in Florence, from the beginning to the founder's death in 1880. As Gaspero Barbèra was born in 1818, he was a contemporary of both the German and the British publisher; and the three works illustrate in a remarkable manner the condition of literature and of book-publishing for a full century in three countries, amid the greatest political and social changes. They are alike in being a mixture of memoirs and inedited letters, with lists of books published, negotiations and contracts with authors, biographical sketches of some of these, notes of failures and successes, extracts from reviews (sometimes *cooked*, in Germany), complaints of piracy (Irish from English and Scotch houses, Neapolitan in Italy). But whereas the Göschen and Murray volumes have a literary form, the *Annali* is openly a *catalogue raisonné*. There is no doubt that the latter offered a simpler task; indeed, the interest commanded by the works of Viscount Göschen and the late Mr. Smiles proceeds more from richness of material than from constructive art. We are inclined to think that the brothers Barbèra have produced a more satisfying presentation, and have not less effectively exhibited the character of their sturdy father, the physiognomy of the group of scholars, publicists and statesmen by whom he surrounded himself, and the quality of his output. Their skill is to be estimated highly, and they have rendered an invaluable service to the history of Italian patriotism and letters.

A controlling reason for their not attempting the Göschen-Murray form of chronicle was that there existed already an autobiography of their father, 'Memorie di un Editore' (Florence, 1883), a work deserving to rank with the best of those portraying the careers of self-made men. Gaspero Barbèra was a native of Turin, of humble parentage but with a rich inheritance of character. He owed a heavy debt to Franklin's Autobiography, which he repaid by publishing in 1869 a competent translation of that work, executed by the Milanese Pietro Rotondi, and, later, the American sage's miscellaneous writings; intercalating from similar motives a selection of lives from two works by the author of 'Self-Help.' Barbèra's fixed aim was to carry his religion into his business, and to assist in the moral uplifting of his countrymen, in the spirit of Massimo D'Azeglio's famous phrase—"Fatta l' Italia, bisogna far gl' Italiani" (Having made Italy, we must now make Italians). He was eminently successful in this purpose through the popularization of classical Italian literature in text-books, "collections," and otherwise, at a time when "literature divorced from politics appeared academic"; acquiring fortune for himself and universal esteem. "I do not," he said, in arranging terms with an author, "regard myself as a merchant—in the sense commonly attached to that word." The poet Aleardi dubbed him "honest publisher (*onesto editore*)" two words which fight in other cases; in yours, embrace." And on the side of his craft, in which he took the greatest pride, Massimo D'Azeglio gave him the reputation of being "No. 1 in Italy." He earned the frequently expressed gratitude of the rising Carducci for liberal treatment and encouragement "in male acque" as colaborer and adviser.

Copious yet strictly pertinent quotations from these Memoirs supply a connecting tissue for the Catalogue proper, and at the same time greatly enhance its readability. Conspicuous instances are Barbèra's relation of his visit to Massimo D'Azeglio, when 'I Miei Ricordi' was placed in manuscript in his astonished hands, with a result best summed up in the figures of a sale of 55,000 copies of the printed work; and the pathetic account of his farewell visit to the statesman on his deathbed. Besides such merited revival of the autobiography, the sons contribute further a large amount of business correspondence from which Barbèra's high tone, fairness, disinterestedness, liberality, and excellent literary judgment shine out unmistakably. Those who are prone to abuse publishers as sharks, may here find candid revelations of lofty endeavor at the publisher's own risk, ending in discomfiture, and some amusing samples of extremely plausible forecasts by ardent authors overcoming the reluctance of Barbèra, only to justify it completely—at his expense.

The hundreds of letters and critical appreciations contained in this generous volume make it a literary performance and almost event. The compilers have avowedly had in mind a contribution to an Italian Bio-bibliographical Dictionary, and in particular to the future *epistolario* of Giosuè Carducci. This poet and scholar first appears on the scene with No. 40 of the Catalogue, as chosen editor of Alfieri's Satires and Minor Poetry, both furnishing a preface and controlling the text. The year is 1858, when he was, at twenty-three, still an obscure youth in spite of his doctor's degree and of the maturity of his intellect and breadth of culture. Editions by him of Tassoni and Parini followed; of the poems of Lorenzo de' Medici; of Giuseppe Giusti, with another masterly preface revealing the great prose writer—a work still in demand; of Salvator Rosa's Satires, Odes, and Letters—"the most elegant prose, academically speaking," of all Carducci's, in his own estimation. And now (1860), at twenty-five, Mamiani calls him to the chair of Italian literature at Bologna, from which he has just retired, the idol and pensioner of the nation. The next year he reviewed in the *Nazione*, the liberal daily printed by and under the management of Barbèra, a canto of Aleardi's, 'I Sette Soldati,' issued by the same firm. He signed with a C., whose identity is now first revealed, and the critique is reproduced in part, ending with an extract from the poem that might well be Carducci's own. Here, along with just discrimination, is observable that generosity towards fellow-literati so characteristic of the man. For the *Nazione* he also wrote (1862) a remarkable review, quoted entire, of Aleardi's 'Canto Politico.' With No. 138 (1863) we come upon the 'Stanze' of Poliziano, proposed by Carducci to Barbèra in 1857, and the first Italian text edited in accordance with the methods of modern criticism, by one who was regarded as above all a poet, and called in Florence an unbridled poet. (It was the period of the "Hymn to Satan," of the "Giambi ed Epodi.")

The first creative work of Carducci's published by Barbèra was his 'Poesie' (1871), including the *Decennali* or his "knight-errant" verse written in the sixties; and his real name stood upon the title-page beside "Enotrio Romano," the *nom de guerre* of his first venture. The correspondence over this volume is of marked importance for the biography of the poet. The correspondence under No. 269 gives a lively portrait of the scholar whose "wait a bit" (to his publisher)—*attender corto corto*—had become the habit of his soul, from his mania for doing well, *molto bene*. In his proposal to edit Baretti he makes a fine display of his bibliographic knowledge and his scrupulous labor in comparing editions. For his Horace he proposes a few odes in the Venetian or Sicilian dialects, and lays out a stupendous programme of editorial labors, while confessing his detachment from the world and his being out of sorts. Of his work on Petrarch since 1860, he says no one was capable of it but himself.

Here we take leave of him for a momentary glance at two or three other conspicuous figures in Barbèra's roll of honor: Massimo D'Azeglio first of all. Of his 'Ricordi' we have already spoken. His correspondence with the house extends from 1857 to 1865. What of it we have here is very interesting, in a political and a literary point of view. To Barbèra this statesman was justly an object of the highest admiration, and he secured the

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publication of his posthumous writings. To his establishment came also General La Marmora, in 1873, for utmost privacy in printing that startling revelation of the diplomacy of 1866, 'Un po' più di luce,' which had a great vogue and involved the author in much official and public censure, and caused Bismarck an uncomfortable quarter of an hour in the Prussian House. A further autobiographic defence against aspersion was La Marmora's Genoese 'Episode of the Risorgimento' (1875), and Signor Piero Barbèra served him as secretary in editing his 'State Secrets in a Constitutional Government' (1877), an attempt to forestall an addition to the penal code aimed at the "indiscretion" of 'Un po' più di luce.' (The Secretary found the General not at home in the use of Italian.) Other notable successes grew out of the early discernment of E. De Amicis's talent when at twenty-five he put together his 'Ricordi [of 1870-71],' after making his début in the *Nazione*. This author's correspondence with his publisher is very engaging. The Marquis Gino Capponi's History of the Republic of Florence is another landmark in our Catalogue. Nor should we omit mention from the galaxy of scholars of Prof. Giovanni Mestica, whose correspondence outbulks any in the archives of the house in the Via Faenza, whose painstaking knew no bounds, as one may see from his incomparable edition of Petrarch, and who died only two years ago.

We recur in closing to the comparison we instituted in the beginning, odious though it be. The *Annali* easily surpasses the Göschen and Murray memorials in one particular, namely, beauty of manufacture. Here is a real monument to a master printer—in proportions, paper, elegant diversity of type, scrupulous proof-reading (we recall no obvious error more serious than the omission of a space between two words), exact fidelity to originals in quoting (as one familiar with Carducci's peculiarities of punctuation may observe), tasteful binding. We must also speak of the judicious employment of facsimiles, one being the fond father's endorsement of the first matter set by his eldest son when learning the printer's art; of Gaspero Barbèra's portrait for frontispiece; and of the appended Catalogue of the Collections (Yellow, Diamond, etc.), and List of Books, Pamphlets, and Periodicals of any importance printed on commission, with an index; plus an index of commentators. Taken together, this pious work is a treasury of Italian style and literary portraiture, and an ornament to the world's stock of fine book-making.

THEODORE WATTS-DUNTON.

Theodore Watts-Dunton: Poet, Novelist, Critic. By James Douglas. John Lane. 1905.

Mr. Douglas's vicarious autobiography of the mind of Theodore Watts-Dunton is in plan and execution pretty much everything that a study of a living man of letters ought not to be. In the case of a man like Watts-Dunton, who has produced such multitudinous and multifarious work, and has been so little careful to preserve it, the reader would have welcomed a systematic outline of it, some hint of the chronology of the author's life, and full and accurate bibliographical references. At all of these points, however, Mr. Douglas is to seek. There are no exact references to the *locus* of any of the very numerous quotations from Mr. Watts-Dunton's work, and even our justifiable curiosity as to the date of his birth is not satisfied. In the index, too—if one turns to it for aid in searching out details of information—will be found such illuminating entries as "Wilderspin: See Smetham, James," and under "Smetham, James," "See Wilderspin"; and the same quality of workmanship is observable in the actual writing, in which discontinuity of periods and incoherence of paragraphs are paralleled in the structure of the book as a whole. It has the architectonic of a wounded snake.

Nor is the temper of Mr. Douglas's approach to his subject quite so cool and discreet as might be desired. He has a talent for tall talk. "Undoubtedly," he says, "the greatest philosophical generalization of our time is expressed in the four words, 'the Renascence of Wonder.'" This will cause surprise to many philosophers. Mr. Douglas's high-erected vein seems in some cases to come from a lack of full literary information. He says, for example, speaking of the part played by Philip Aylwin after his death in shaping the course of the story of his son, "This effect of making a man dominate from his grave the entire course of the life of his descendants seems to be unique in imaginative literature; and yet although the fingers of some critics (notably Mr. Coulson Kernahan) burn close to it, there they leave it." Surely Mr. Douglas has forgotten his Hawthorne, to mention no others. It is remarks like this that give at times to Mr. Douglas's book almost the accent of a burlesque *éloge*.

Fortunately, however, there is not very much of Mr. Douglas's own writing in the book. He has wrapped his slender shanks with such ample swathing of his author's work that they make a very presentable appearance. His native Boswellian tendencies, which he frankly avows, have been strictly repressed by Mr. Watts-Dunton, so that, while we do indeed have some interesting pictures of Mr. Watts-Dunton's mutually fructifying friendships with George Borrow, William Morris, Swinburne, Rossetti, and others, the chief value of the book is as an anthology of Mr. Watts-Dunton's scattered and too little known work in criticism, in fiction, and in verse.

Those who have known of Mr. Watts-Dunton as the chief poetic critic of the *Athenæum*, as the author of that curious novel, 'Aylwin,' or as the faithful Achates of Mr. Swinburne, will be surprised at the amplitude and variety of his interests as they are presented here. In early life he was, as we discover, a student of science, and for a time looked upon that as his career. Later he was a barrister and a student of music; and then, in order, as Mr. Douglas tells us with unction, a society man, a poet, a critic of art and letters, a novelist, and, all the time, a first-hand investigator of gypsy life and lore, and a poet. Mr. Douglas's meditations upon the Renascence of Wonder have so tinged his mind with that quality that he considers each of these pursuits with something like awe. Seen through the perspective of over-seas, they inspire interest rather than awe, as explaining some of the peculiar quality which has impressed readers of Mr. Watts-Dunton's work.

The salient merit of that work, as it has been seen for thirty years by readers of the *Athenæum*, is its consistent ideality. The poetic reviews written by Mr. Watts-Dunton and the personal articles from his pen have always shown something of the freshness of view of a Romany Rye, something of the psychologizing of a student of modern thought, along with an unflagging perception of the inner spirit of poetry. While they have been streaked with the occasional flatness of tone that is the inevitable result of composing by dictation, and have never quite shown that admirable low-voiced quality of style which is at present the ideal of literary good manners, or quite the "silkiness" which Mr. Douglas finds in them, they have been always resourceful in phrase, and often extremely picturesque. How admirably suggestive, for example, and cleanly phrased is this bit of criticism which Mr. Douglas has resurrected from an old review:

"One great virtue of the great masters is their winsome softness of touch in character drawing. We are not fond of comparing literary work with pictorial art, but between the work of the novelist and the work of the portrait painter there does seem a true analogy as regards the hardness and softness of touch in the drawing of character. In landscape painting, that hardness which the general public love is a fault; but in portrait painting, so important is it to avoid hardness that, unless the picture seems to have been blown upon the canvas, as in the best work of Gainsborough, rather than to have been laid upon it by the brush, the painter has not achieved a perfect success. In the imaginative literature of England the two great masters of this softness of touch in portraiture are Addison and Sterne. Three or four hardly drawn lines in Sir Roger or the two Shandies or Corporal Trim would have ruined the portraits so completely that they would never have come down to us."

We are not of those who hold with Rossetti that "the subtle and original generalizations upon the first principles of poetry which illumine his [Watts-Dunton's] writings could only have come to him by a duplicate exercise of his brain when he was writing his own poetry." For, despite the unremitting picturesqueness of such poems as "The Coming of Love" and "Christmas at the Mermaid," despite their mystical burden and occasional lyric lift, there is discoverable in them rather the considerate intelligence of the critical mind than the irresistible impulse of the creative. Indeed, the critical doctrine, or philosophic lesson, seems to shape the creation from outside, rather than to lurk, fluid, in it. An excellent illustration of this is the piece of vivid criticism to be found in a passage which Mr. Douglas has printed from an unpublished romance. Dereham, by whom we understand George Borrow, and the author have been discussing the poetic quality of Arnold's "Scholar Gypsy." They conclude to leave it to the first gypsy girl they meet on the road as umpire. Meeting Rhona Boswell, they read it to her, with this engaging result:

"Glanville's prose story, upon which Arnold's poem is based, was read first. In this, Rhona was much interested. But when I went on to read to her Arnold's poem, though her eyes flashed now and then at the lovely bits of description—for the country about Oxford is quite remarkably like the country in which she was born—she looked sadly bewildered, and then asked to have it all read again. After a

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second reading, she said in a meditative way: 'Can't make out what the lil's all about. Seems all about nothink! Seems to me that the pretty sights what makes a Romany fit to jump out o' her skin for joy makes this 'ere gorgio want to cry. What a rum lot gorgios is surely!' And then she sprang up and ran off toward the camp with the agility of a greyhound, turning around every few moments, pirouetting and laughing aloud."

Surely the pathetic fallacy of the gorgios was never more picturesquely put. But we suspect that the critical doctrine determined Rhona's speech.

The striking thing about Mr. Watts-Dunton's ostensibly creative work, as it is disjointedly summarized in this book, is the curious solidarity of the circle of people who move in all of it. The group of passionate and moody poets and artists with whom his life has been spent, a handful of gypsy types, and the family of Aylwins—whom Mr. Douglas has punctiliously identified with the Wattses—are his stock characters. One feels, it must be confessed, that Mr. Watts-Dunton has been rather the fortunate secretary and reporter of one of the most interesting circles of his time than quite the marvellous creative artist that he has seemed to the young men in England, perhaps with poems in their pockets, who have bowed before the poetic critic of the *Athenæum*.

Mr. Douglas has reprinted in full many interesting and characteristic reviews and articles from the *Athenæum*, but the greater part of the texture of his book is made up of excerpts from 'Aylwin,' and it is most probably by 'Aylwin,' considered rather for its doctrine than for its form, that Mr. Watts-Dunton's place in literature is finally to be determined. There is no question that 'Aylwin' is in many respects one of the most interesting books of the last decade; but to a quizzical age not yet wonted to the Renascence of Wonder, some parts of it must always seem feverish and overwrought, some a little foolish. The "Aylwinism" which has been so enthusiastically and insistently preached by many English reviewers, does not seem in its entirety likely to become the dominant artistic and religious creed of the new century. But Mr. Watts-Dunton must not be judged solely by the crudities of his admirers. The Renascence of Wonder—his excellent formula for the great romantic movement as it is exemplified in 'Aylwin'—means a very special kind of wonder. It is not the blindly mystic bewilderment for which it is sometimes mistaken. It is rather the "keen-eyed wonder" of which young Lowell sang. It does not shut its eyes to the methods and results of science, or to any of the so various phenomena of modern life. As it is presented in 'Aylwin,' despite many unpleasant strains in that book, it does make for a recognition of the invisible realities that are life. The core of all of Mr. Watts-Dunton's work is in the concluding lines of his fine apostrophe to Natura Benigna:

"Dumb mother, struggling with the years to tell
The secret at thy heart through helpless eyes."

In this groping for the meaning of nature he is at one with the endeavor of the scientists, yet what he has done has made undeniably for faith.

THE DAWN OF RECONSTRUCTION.

History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850. By James Ford Rhodes. Vol. V. Macmillan. 1904.

Mr. Rhodes's fifth volume opens with Sherman's march to the sea, and closes with the Congressional elections of 1866 and the remarkable performances of Andrew Johnson in his contest with Congress. It thus covers less than two years of the nation's history; but as those two years were replete with interesting and important events, the space devoted to them is not too great. The writer's method and his even narration make pleasant reading. There is the same painstaking examination of authorities, the same skilful arrangement of facts, the same balanced (sometimes hesitating) judgment, and the same desire to be eminently fair to all parties in a controversy. To have steered one's way through the many quarrels and differences engendered by the civil war without becoming involved on one side or the other, is a great feat; and to have done this in a manner which has won the confidence of ardent partisans to those controversies is a high tribute to the correctness of procedure laid down by Mr. Rhodes at the outset and steadily maintained through the course of his work. He describes the management of the military prisons in the North and in the South, without giving occasion for a charge of partisanship or unnecessary coloring of his facts. He seeks to explain the burning of Columbia, and almost leaves one in surprise that any controversy could long rage over that catastrophe. His account of the Fort Pillow massacre distributes the blame in such a way that the Northern critics must answer a charge of remissness of duty on the part of those who should first have investigated the matter. In his effort to be just, Mr. Rhodes sometimes leans to excessive caution. Who would explain, as he does, an application of the term "irresponsible" to the romancing Sala? He hesitates about the actual proof of Butler's dishonesty, while admitting that an atmosphere of corruption followed and surrounded the man wherever he was placed. On mooted points Mr. Rhodes has again demonstrated his high ability, and while it is impossible to assert that he has silenced controversy, he offers a model of investigation and calm judgment.

Sherman's march to the sea and the surrender of Lee and Johnston brought peace and a necessity of facing the problems of administration that a peace involved. In two chapters Mr. Rhodes describes the social conditions in the North and South, and endeavors to show the results of the war upon the daily life of the people. That the North bore the contest so easily is attributed to the fact that an era of prosperity, a recovery from the effects of the panic of 1857, was due. As wages did not rise with the increase in prices, the benefits were not evenly distributed. The heavy expenditures of Government gave a feverish activity to certain industries, and the gambling spirit was encouraged by the fluctuations in the value of the greenback and by the unhealthy tone of the money market. Even in the South the free capital went into blockade-running, or was invested in lands; manufactures benefited but little. At the North the frauds in Government contracts were great, but did not equal those of the bounty brokers—the forerunners of the later pension agents. Mr. Rhodes seems to accept the theory that luxury was a fertile cause of the exports of specie; thus reversing the usual explanation of economists. Bad as the issues of paper were at the South, a legal-tender act was never passed.

The States exposed to actual war naturally suffered, and in the South the destruction of life and property was such as seriously to weaken the power of recovery. This power was normally less effective in the slave States, and the better business organization and ability of the North enabled it to come out of the conflict with no serious economic trouble, apart from its paper money. The moral tone of the country was in one phase elevated by the patriotism displayed. The war had a sobering effect. In another phase the morals of the country were weakened by the war spirit and its incidental as well as necessary evils.

But is it true that, in the slave States of the South, before and during the war, a greater regard was paid to liberty? Personal liberty may consist with extreme social selfishness, and the laws and policies that grew out of State's rights and jealousy of executive power could not imply liberty in its highest sense while millions remained slaves. Burke's statement, which our author endorses, that where there is a vast number of slaves, "those who are free are by far the most proud and jealous of their freedom," is a paradox. With much greater justice, Mr. Rhodes calls attention to the difference between the executives in the two sections. "The Federal Government may be called a dictatorship; Congress and the people surrendered certain of their powers and rights to a trusted man. The Confederacy was a grand socialized State in which the Government did everything." Paternal government is a denial of individualism—and liberty.

The war was over, and the question of the political status of the people lately in rebellion was pressing. Sherman's well-intentioned concessions to Johnston, involving some of the leading problems of reconstruction, were promptly disavowed by the authorities at Washington. Mr. Rhodes believes that Sherman's defence of the conditions is worthy of consideration, and condemns Stanton's reckless disregard of official secrecy and honor in making public the implied reprimand to Sherman, while attributing it to the excited condition of Stanton's mind at the time, and to his want of personal courage. For Lincoln Mr. Rhodes's admiration is unbounded, and when treating of his words and acts he most closely approaches enthusiasm. Lincoln was the best friend of the South; his mild and forgiving policy was based upon the highest statesmanship. He had the confidence of the North, and was winning that of the South. He would have had a Congress elected upon his own platform, and his breadth of purpose would have enabled him to win against opposition by a judicious concession of less important details. His death closed an epoch. While the manner of his end created a feeling that told against the full reconciliation of the two sections of the country, the accession of Johnson was hailed by many as a change for the better. Of Lincoln, Mr. Rhodes says:

"In all the steps which Lincoln took, there was an Anglo-Saxon adaptation of the

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means at hand; the process was tentative. A wise Executive could modify his plan according to circumstances, and therefore could carry out the work, as long as a state of war existed, better than if he were hampered by a cast-iron rule of Congress. For such an affair of statecraft Lincoln by his training and experience was especially fitted; his action seems to show the practical wisdom of the Anglo-Saxon."

Lincoln's attitude towards Reconstruction had been opposed by Stanton and by the Committee on the Conduct of the War, through Wade, its chairman. Johnson was known to be outspoken against "traitors," and very earnest in demanding that they be punished. The party leaders looked upon him with greater favor than Lincoln, whose views of mercy were not palatable to them. Johnson made no pledge to carry out Lincoln's policy, yet in the summer of 1865 he had so far changed his views about reconstruction as to surprise both friends and enemies. Peace altered the conditions which prevailed under Lincoln; Stanton yielded on the question of imposing negro suffrage upon the States by Federal authority, and supported the President. Sherman and Schofield, then in North Carolina, were opposed to granting the suffrage, and Johnson's action in establishing provisional governments in the States did not recognize it. The absence of well-defined political parties in the South made the task of beginning other than military governments more difficult. "State and Congressional elections took place at regular periods; but as no principle was involved in them, they excited little interest and determined practically nothing." Unwise and unfriendly legislation respecting the freedmen gave good ground for suspecting the sincerity of the protestations that slavery was abolished beyond recall, and the President's course was hampered by this legislation and the suspicions awakened by it.

Mr. Rhodes believes that had Johnson called an early session of Congress, some common ground for agreement might have been found. Yet Johnson was his own worst enemy. He did not understand Northern sentiment; and he was a State's-rights man applying the principles of State's-rights to communities which, in the belief of many, were not States. Opposition intensified his obstinacy, and he was gradually led into resuming his old party affiliations. Failing to secure assent to his own policy of reconstructing the States through the Federal Executive, he resisted the plans of Congress, which after all embodied most of the essential features of his own policy. Sumner, Wade, and Stevens insisted upon the full right of Congress to impose reconstruction on the States lately in rebellion, and the subsequent legislation placed the President in a position that called out the worst points of his character. Mr. Rhodes believes that the Southern States would have received a plan that gave to the negroes full civil rights and a qualified suffrage. He shows that popular opinion was generally with the President, and the majority of the Congress of 1865 was nearer to the President's views than to those of Stevens and Sumner—until the veto of the Freedman's Bureau bill. He is plainly on the side of Congress, expressing surprise that Johnson should have vetoed that measure. Yet the veto appears to have been based upon the advice of Brigadier-General Fullerton, who had been in charge of the Freedman's Bureau, and was therefore in a position to advise with authority. It is difficult to prove that the author is unfair to Johnson, yet the case of the President was a strong one, granting certain assumptions which the Executive could make. Mr. Rhodes thinks that it would have been safe to permit the States to work out the negro problem under the restrictions of the Freedman's Bureau and military occupation. But both these measures were temporary; would it not follow that Congress alone could provide for the permanent settlement? And, in insisting upon conditions that were punitive and vindictive, did not that body err as greatly as did the President?

We wish we could follow Mr. Rhodes in this important chapter, for, as in everything he writes, his fairness is striking, even when his conclusions do not seem to be borne out by the facts.

Methods of Industrial Peace. By Nicholas Paine Gilman. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904.

This is the first comprehensive book on the various methods of adjusting disputes between labor unions and employers or employers' associations. It consists of some four hundred pages divided into sixteen chapters, treating in general of the present-day combinations of both employees and employers, of the aims and methods of trade unions, mediation, conciliation, and arbitration, and finally of legal regulation of labor disputes. The work is not a first-hand study like Webb's 'Industrial Democracy,' but is based almost wholly on secondary sources. It is mainly descriptive, paying little attention to development or extended comparison. A large part of Mr. Gilman's sources are English, and in his discussion of the aims and methods of trade unions he is led to generalize too broadly on English experience. Indeed, the author proceeds frequently on the assumption that conditions are alike in the three countries—England, New Zealand, and the United States.

The author says (p. 35), without qualification, that the local union exercises all the functions of trade unions in that it determines wages, hours, apprenticeship, etc. This is certainly not true of the more important American unions such as the Typographical, the Steel, Tin and Iron Workers, the Bricklayers, and the Iron Moulders. He says (p. 234) that the organization of unskilled workingmen has been "unsuccessful in England, and the attempt has not even been made in this country." As a matter of fact, there are at least a dozen large national organizations of unskilled workers. For more than five years, the whole system of unionism in the United States has been rapidly changing to the industrial form, wherein are included the skilled and the unskilled, such as the Mine Workers, the Brewery Workmen, and the Butcher Workmen. Aside from these, powerful organizations of teamsters, hod-carriers, waiters, elevator conductors, janitors, and window-washers have come into existence.

Mr. Gilman considers (p. 238) the union label as of no importance, basing his conclusion on the words of a labor leader—"We hope nothing from the label"—and on an investigation made in one city, published as a magazine article. There are some trades in which the label cannot well be used, and the labor leader in question may have belonged to one of them; but even if the label were as much in demand in all the larger cities of the country as in Milwaukee, the city investigated, it would nevertheless be of considerable importance. That the label is of importance is evidenced by the fact that several national unions, such as the cigarmakers and the garment workers, have been built up on it. There have been several instances where the union label has been counterfeited, a practice not likely to occur unless the original were of value.

In regard to apprentices, the author says (p. 232) that trade unions were formerly the subject of much criticism because of their rules regulating the number of apprentices. He mentions a strike in New York in 1809 on account of apprentices, and, after giving several cases of such regulation in England, states that only 15,000 of 1,500,000, or only 1 per cent. of the unionists in that country, enforce apprentice regulations. He concludes that the whole system of apprenticeship has been so disintegrated in modern times that the rules of unions are of little importance and the question of apprentices lacks actuality. As a matter of fact, there are but few, if any, of the nearly one hundred organizations of skilled trades in the United States that do not have and enforce apprenticeship regulations. A majority of the agreements with employers that Mr. Gilman cites as typical contain clauses regarding the apprentice. It should at least have been known to the author that of the problems considered by the conference board of the Iron Moulders and the Defence Association, which he characterizes as the most highly developed system of collective bargaining in this country, the most difficult problem next to wages has been the subject of the union regulations of the apprentice.

The author's treatment of mediation, conciliation, and arbitration is much more satisfactory; but even here the discussion is often diffuse, especially in the chapter on collective bargaining, and throughout there is not that successful search for underlying principles which distinguishes the work of Mr. and Mrs. Webb on the trade unions of England.

In the chapter on the incorporation of labor unions, Mr. Gilman gives (p. 151) a lengthy résumé of the testimony before the Industrial Commission on this subject, and then shows how the unions registered in England are practically incorporated according to the Taff Vale decision. He argues that incorporation is necessary to put the unions on the same standing as employers, and speaks of the "illogical and immoral unwillingness to become incorporated." But here the author is not altogether just to the unions. Many labor leaders say that they would be heartily in favor of incorporation if its effects were merely to make binding the agreements entered into with employers. They claim that, as the criminal law is sufficient to reach cases of lawlessness, they see no reason why a way should be opened for hostile employers and employers' associations to mulct the treasuries of the unions or tie up their strike funds when they should be most needed. The testimony before the Industrial Commission, on which the author large-

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ly bases his arguments for incorporation, was given before the Taff Vale decision was rendered. That decision has changed the views of many who formerly favored incorporation.

The author also says (p. 176) that the incorporation of employers' associations is a requisite to industrial peace, and quotes from the Report of the English Royal Commission of Labor for 1894—ten years ago. Almost all of the successful systems of collective bargaining in this country are carried on by unincorporated associations of employers. None of these now demand that the unions incorporate. It may not be without significance that the demand for incorporation comes mainly from employers and employers' associations which are opposed to trades unions as such.

The author is inaccurate in saying that the principle of the Taff Vale decision was applied recently to the Franklin Union of Press Feeders of Chicago when that union was fined by the court for disobeying an injunction, and again when he says (p. 196) that the boycott suits now pending in the Federal courts against the Hatters' Union may furnish another such instance. The Franklin Union, which has since given up its charter, was one of the few incorporated unions in the country, and naturally could be fined like any other incorporated body, while in the case of the Hatters the union is not incorporated, and the members are sued as individuals, and not as a union.

After describing the Governmental control of strikes in New Zealand, the author makes a plea for such regulation in the United States. It cannot be said that he gives much consideration to objections, although he does notice (p. 407) the consideration that "Governmental control would be a half-way house to Socialism." Yet he considers that objection answered when he replies: "It is not necessary, because I go half way towards the Pacific Ocean, that I shall continue my course until I am drowned in it." On the practical side, it should be noticed that the whole number of workmen in New Zealand does not equal the number in some of our largest unions. The industry of New Zealand is insignificant as compared to the extent and diversity of the industries of the United States, and it can readily be seen that the power granted the court in New Zealand of fixing wages and labor conditions throughout these islands could not give satisfaction here, nor serve as well as the systems of collective bargaining that are being worked out in some of these industries with characteristic American independence and originality.

Upon the whole, however, the book is of value. In spite of its inaccuracies and occasional unfairness, it contains much information presented in a readable way, with many references to secondary and some to primary sources. In justice to the author it must be said that there exist few original studies of the various aspects of American trade unions, upon which a general work of this description might be based; yet it must also be said that he has generalized too broadly on insufficient evidence, and has been influenced too much by his prepossession for State regulation to give an unbiased interpretation of the strivings of the leaders of employers and of employees towards satisfactory methods of industrial peace.

The Road in Tuscany: A Commentary. By Maurice Hewlett. In two volumes, with illustrations by Joseph Pennell. The Macmillan Co. 1904.

A book-notice need not always be like an epigram—little and sweet, with a sting in the tail. Let us this time at least reverse the order. Here are two volumes in wash-day blue—not inexpensive volumes, either, and not unduly large—yet they might have been expressly concocted for the spite of the author and the torment of the reader. They are leaden in their ponderosity, and when the book is once poised before the eyes, to hold it open for the space of two pages' reading is like riving Milo's oak. The only thing to do is to lay it on a table, or book-rest, and break it down the back (this last can be done at any signature); and even then the stiff leaves curl up with petulant insistence. In such a discouraging prison is confined the rich fancy of Mr. Hewlett's fertile imaginings. Perhaps this is the price we are called upon to pay for the bountiful store of Mr. Pennell's drawings; but it is an unnecessarily hard price.

Possibly our preliminary impatience makes us think the illustrator not at his best in these volumes. His later style appears to us, at any rate, not as pleasant as his earlier. That sharp and sure pencil-point (of which we find some work even here) fitted better the interpretation of shivering light and lambent shadow than do some of these masses of crayon blackness, which too often give us a tumbling and amateurish perspective, and in the printer's hands at times degenerate into smudginess.

Mr. Hewlett should be the ideal artist to paint in words the road through Tuscany, for no man has so comprehendingly idealized Tuscan life and character. If the Italian of that soil be not what Mr. Hewlett makes him in the delicately gorgeous tapestry of his wonderful tales, then let no man ever weep again that Ilaria del Caretto sleeps in dust, nor yearn again to bathe his weary feet in the noontide coolness of an Apennine brooklet. Yet Mr. Hewlett seems to us better in the individual vignettes of this book than in its panoramic passages and effects. Where he essays to depict, as he does sometimes in professed allegory (a little tediously), and sometimes in more straightforward guise, the movement of events, we get the overwhelming massing and swirl of all-intent giant forces, but not a clear idea of "what they killed each other for." It is almost too nearly like his own characterization of a certain fresco in the portico of the Annunziata at Florence: "In the foreground is a heap, a fricassee, a salad of naked mammoths in human guise, . . . fawns, heroes with clubs, demigods, deuce knows who or what is not in this writhing mass." Furthermore, we are sometimes cloyed with mere preciosities of verbiage—purple patches on a noble garment of stately folds. We would fain see the forest, but the neighboring trees distract our attention and block our view. Why, for instance, need charm and magnificence and such like things be a dozen times dubbed "perdurable," and never once simply "lasting"? Mr. Hewlett is more than a fantastic lord of language.

The *road* in Tuscany, says Mr. Hewlett, and never the railway, for which, and for all that runs therewith, he feels a Ruskinese contempt—though, be it noted, he does not always love Ruskin down to the bottom of the depths. But, once we are valiantly settled for the road, Mr. Hewlett begins to hedge and compromise, and to quote high authorities for the golden mean. Let us not be too hasty in swinging knapsack to shoulder. The extreme counsel is a counsel of perfection. Mr. Hewlett would not "pitch his pipe too high." No footweary days for him, but rather the *al Milord* style of a carriage and four—or, let us say, two—with Dante and Sacchetti for hourly comrades, and Herr Baedeker (as he is always entitled, with lamentably disrespectful intent) tucked away under the seat, to be summoned into consultation only to be snubbed, or when Dante, like a true Tuscan, falls lightly asleep in the afternoon glare. So we traverse highway and byway, town and hamlet, upland and lowland, at the leisurely pace of some six miles an hour, and sleep in the midst of heavenly visions, and all is ethereal fire and color and bewildering charm, and the people know neither good nor evil any more than once did Adam and Eve, and the inn-keeper's wife in the Garfagnana is a woman more lovely than any who can now be ministering to Mahomet. We need hardly ever go inside a church, and never into a museum, nor ever look at a picture unless we happen to like it; and we are swept blissfully forward through all this exquisite phantasmagoria of brilliant sights and sounds and imaginings upon a billowing tide of gloriously resonant names like those which spread their glamour over all ancient poetry. In short, Tuscany with Mr. Hewlett is more Paradise than ever, though we already thought it Paradise enow.

Papermaker, and binder, and the little demon of the commonplace have called seductively upon us to curse, but we have blessed. For even here, in the bleakness and dulness of this western world, Mr. Hewlett has again given us sundry hours of beatified vision into a distant, though perhaps not forever lost, Elysium.

Chinese Made Easy. By Walter Brooks Brouner, A.B., M.D., of Columbia University, and Fung Yuet Mow, Chinese Missionary in the City of New York. With an introduction by Herbert A. Giles, M.A., LL.D. (Aberd.), Professor of Chinese in the University of Cambridge, England, and late H. B. M. Consul at Ningpo. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1904.

This is a handsomely got-up book, with a red cloth cover and a gilt dragon impressed on it. The title-page is on the right hand and the pages of the book follow from right to left as in a Chinese book. This and the title will no doubt attract purchasers, especially novices in matters Chinese and the study of languages generally. It seems a pedagogic mistake, however, to call any study "easy" if in reality you expect a student to muster all his energies in tackling what everybody knows to be a difficult subject. Although the difficulties of the Chinese language have been greatly overrated by many, there is not the slightest doubt that Chinese is not easy and cannot be made easy. Students who may trust to the bait thus thrown out to

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them will find themselves sorely disappointed in finding, in the end, that they have thrown away much valuable time, and must start by another method if they are really anxious to arrive at a certain competency in either speaking or reading Chinese.

'Chinese Made Easy' is a misnomer to begin with. Which kind of Chinese do you wish to study? The written language, or the colloquial? If the latter, which dialect? The selection of a dialect depends, of course, essentially upon the use to which a student is going to put the knowledge to be acquired. Of all the dialects known to China, the one most generally in use is the court dialect of Peking, and a student who judges this book from its title may expect to be taught this idiom rather than a dialect of merely local importance. What 'Chinese Made Easy' teaches is one of the dialects spoken in the Canton province; it is not even pure Cantonese, as a comparison of numerous sound transcriptions with any of the well-known standard works on the Canton dialect, such as those of Eitel, Williams, Chalmers and Dyer Ball, will show. The spelling of Cantonese sounds adopted in this book is meant to be practical, no doubt, and it may be of some use to English-speaking students of the lowest standard of education; but it marks a fundamental departure from the spelling adopted, ever since S. Wells Williams's Dictionary of the Canton Dialect, by all authors of handbooks and dictionaries of the dialect. The student who may have gone through this book will have to forget what he has learned and study a new orthography, if he wants to make use of those important helps.

The method adopted is also of a practical kind. It would certainly commend itself for the study of the Canton dialect but for the shortcomings above explained. With the exception of a useful choice of Chinese characters and a well-printed reproduction of the text of the Chinese primer San-tzi-king, 'The Three Character Classic' seen in the hands of Chinese school boys, the book contains no matter calculated to impart any knowledge of the Chinese written language, so entirely different from the several spoken idioms. To be pronounced useful the book should have for title 'Cantonese Made Easy,' and the spelling should be made to correspond with that adopted in all other works on the subject, local deviations and solecisms being changed into their proper equivalents in standard Cantonese.

The Land of Riddles (Russia of To-day). By Hugo Ganz. Harper & Brothers. 1904.

As the above title indicates, Mr. Hugo Ganz set out on his travels in the frame of mind of the man who has made up his mind to solve the mysteries of the Sphinx. His way of reaching his solution was to obtain a large number of interviews from people who must of necessity remain nameless, but are spoken of as "a Russian prince" (there are said, by the way, to be genuine Russian princes among the cab drivers of St. Petersburg), "a statesman," "a man in a very respectable position," "a Conservative aristocrat," etc. Undoubtedly this method has its advantages. It is an excellent way to obtain startling facts from people who, if they are sure that their identity will not be disclosed, are glad to profit by the chance to unburden themselves of their bitterness to a sympathetic listener. On the other hand, it has the disadvantage that the accuracy of statements thus made is more than difficult to control. Mr. Ganz for his part seems to have accepted what was told him as readily as he does the unhistorical legend of the blinding of the architect of the church of St. Basil in order to prevent the duplication of such a masterpiece. To him every kind of whip in Russia is a "knout"—an article which, in theory at least, is now relegated to museums. He declares, to be sure, that he set out on his journey without prejudices, but his state of mind may be inferred from the fact that he did not dare to bring a single book into the country except his Baedeker; hence he had a dull time looking out of the car windows. No wonder that he appears to have been filled with emotion while his passport was being examined. Then, though truth compels him to admit that "I did not experience the slightest annoyance throughout my entire journey; I was not subjected to police surveillance, nor did I notice in my meagre correspondence the least trace of police interference," he attributes this last circumstance "to the extreme precautions taken by me in sending my mail in inconspicuous envelopes." There is a good deal of truth in the saying that what we take out of a country depends chiefly on what we have brought in.

At the same time, even if we have to regard many of the assertions made by and to Mr. Ganz as "not proven," in themselves they accord too well with much that we have on other evidence for us to be able to reject them summarily. The views that were expressed to him, and which formed his judgment, may have been merely the opinions of certain discontented groups—and even the much-abused Chinovnik has his side of the case—nevertheless, the facts related are not only painful in themselves, but, alas! many of them all too likely. Recent events are proving beyond dispute how profound is the discontent at present existing among the enlightened classes in Russia, and few people will be found in the outside world to deny that that discontent is warranted.

In the non-political part of his book Mr. Ganz gives us his impressions of St. Petersburg and Moscow, of the Hermitage, of the Trediakovski Gallery, and of other similar subjects. There are a few instances of careless proof-reading in the volume, the worst of them being when Mme. de Staël's description of Moscow as a "Rome tartare" is made unrecognizable as "Roma tatae." The volume closes, as such a one was bound to do, with the inevitable but still usually interesting "Visit to Tolstoy."

The Secret of Petrarch. By Edmund James Mills. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1904. Pp. xii, 219; illustrated.

To one acquainted with the most remarkable of all Petrarch's Latin works, his Confessions—or "My Secret," as he was pleased to call them—Mr. Mills's book is a sad disappointment. The title seems to promise, at last, a good modern edition, or at least a translation or full description, of this precious little treatise, which has been buried for more than three hundred years in the slovenly Basel editions of Petrarch's *Opera omnia*. But, alas, aside from a brief commendation of the 'Secret' in his preface, Mr. Mills scarcely alludes to it, and it appears to have done little more for him than to suggest the name of the "drama" which occupies the latter half of his volume. In this he embodies the startling results of a series of "critical studies on various questions of interest relating to Petrarch and Laura" which form a prose prelude to his poem. These "critical studies" are based almost exclusively on the Canzoniere. So few are the references to Petrarch's discussion of his relations with Laura given in the 'Secret' that one wonders if Mr. Mills has taken pains to read the work for himself; and, singularly enough, he does not cite in his bibliography any edition of Petrarch's writings where it may be found.

Petrarch's Lady Laura has been the subject of much speculation. It is true that his Italian verses are largely devoted to her, but they furnish few, if any, cold facts which can be confidently pronounced such. One of his Latin metrical epistles and the 'Secret' have a little to say of her, and then there is the famous entry which Petrarch made on the fly-leaf of his Virgil upon her death. It is usually supposed that she lived, very possibly married, and died, in Avignon, and was buried in the Franciscan cemetery there. Mr. Mills, however, comes to very definite and quite different conclusions. Laura was a country maiden who "lived in a squalid farmhouse, probably on the clay opposite Pieverde [near Avignon], and was entirely out of sympathy with very unpleasant personal and other surroundings." The word *faticosa* used by Petrarch "evidently indicates that she took her part in the farm work." She did not die of the plague, as commonly supposed, but "a gentle death, resembling the languishment of a cut flower," due to uterine fibroma; her grave was marked by a few stones (*pochi sassi*). Mr. Mills finds it necessary to reject the entry in the Virgil as apocryphal, although M. Nolhac, the greatest expert in the matter of Petrarch's handwriting, accepts it as authentic beyond a peradventure.

We suspect that the critical discussions were only designed to introduce the drama, which really lay nearest the writer's heart, and in which he gives a very pleasant wandering account of Francesco and his long talks with his sweet, serious-minded *contadina*. The illustrations are beautifully executed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashmore, Sidney G. The Classics and Modern Training. Putnams. $1.25 net.
Barton, George Aaron. A Year's Wandering in Bible Lands. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach.
Cahan, A. The White Terror and the Red. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Dods, Marcus. The Bible: Its Origin and Nature. Scribners. $1 net.
[illegible], William Edwards. Some Neglected History [illegible]rth Carolina. Neale Publishing Co. $2.
Gom[illegible]Theodor. Greek Thinkers. Vols. II. and III. [illegible]s. $4 net.
Havell, E. B. Agra and the Taj. Longmans. $1.50 net.
Japp, Alexander. Robert Louis Stevenson. Scribners.
Knauer's Manufacturers of the United States, 1905. Manufacturers' Red Book Pub. Co.
Laurent, Gaston. Les Grands Ecrivains Scientifiques. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr.
Muss-Arnolt, W. Dictionary of the Assyrian Language. Part 16. New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Oates, William C. The War between the Union and the Confederacy. Neale Publishing Co. $3.
Pafflow, Charles W. The Mysteries of the Zimniy Dvóretz. Neale Publishing Co. $1.50.
Ransom, Caroline L. Studies in Ancient Furniture. University of Chicago Press. $4.50 net.
Schenck, Elizabeth Hubbell. The History of Fairfield. Vol. II. and last. Privately Printed.
Thaw, Alexander Blair. An Inaugural Ode. Nelson, N. H.: Monadnock Press. 50 cents net.
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